

THE CHARITIES REVIEW

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State Lines in Public Service.

A recent decision of the court of last resort in Maryland, in relation to the appointment of a superintendent of schools of the city of Baltimore, should be a source of encouragement to many who are connected with charitable work. A progressive school board had appointed as superintendent of schools a man who had made a splendid record in a similar position in a western state. The appointment of a person from outside the state was immediately strongly criticised, and suit was brought to practically annul the appointment. In the lower courts the suit was successful, but the highest court has decided that the city of Baltimore may secure for its public-school system the services of the most accomplished teacher who can be had, irrespective of residence. The moral effect of this decision should be far-reaching.

For reasons not altogether evident, a continually increasing emphasis has been laid during the past few years upon state lines. The partisan politician could probably give more information than anyone else as to the origin and tendency of this movement, and those who have the best interests of our state and

municipal institutions at heart will not have much difficulty in determining what should be their attitude upon this question. In some instances appointments to important positions in connection with state charities are limited by law to citizens of the state. In other cases, even though there may be no such legal requirements, the responsible authorities are not willing to meet the criticism which would be made of the appointment of a person from another state. The results of this policy are unfortunate in many respects. It leads to a vicious system of in-breeding. It prevents marked and unusual ability from finding that which would naturally come to it—the largest opportunity. It deprives the largest and most important institutions of the benefit of the very highest talent, unless that talent happens to be found within the same state as the institutions. The difference between the very best and the next best is oftentimes all the difference in the world. This is especially true in relation to institutions for the cure of the acute insane and institutions for the reformation of wayward children. The very best talent may effect a large proportion of cures in

the one case and of reforms in the other. The next best may maintain apparently well conducted institutions which utterly fail to secure the results for which they were established.

Another direction in which state lines have been emphasized, is in limiting state or municipal institutions in the purchase of supplies. A law passed in New York in 1899 provides that in the purchase of supplies for state institutions, preference shall be given to products raised within the state, price and quality being equal. This raises interesting questions as to the quality of supplies. Who would be so unpatriotic as to admit the superiority of products raised in another state? How can the inferiority of local products be proved? Another law provides that all stone used in state or municipal works, except paving blocks and crushed stone, shall be worked, dressed, and carved within the state. These laws are the resultant of several proposed measures, much more radical. All these provisions grow out of the notion that the state institutions are intended somehow to benefit other classes besides their inmates, and that every citizen has—to put it plainly—a certain right to a share in the patronage connected with state charities.

Still another direction in which state lines have recently been made prominent is in connection with the placing out of children. Several states have either forbidden the importation of destitute children from

other states, or have surrounded their importation with such restrictions and alleged safeguards as to make it practically impossible. New York, on the other hand, has forbidden her public officers to place destitute children with families not residing in the state. It is our opinion that nearly all such legislation is unqualifiedly bad; that the freest possible migration is desirable; that rural states are benefited by receiving young children, and that urban states are alike benefited by the withdrawal of surplus population from their great cities. The assumption that the local institutions of any state are unable to find homes for their children on account of the importation of children from other states is, in our opinion, an entirely gratuitous and wholly erroneous one. Our belief is that in no state has the limit of absorption by the community of homeless children been ascertained, for the simple reason that nowhere has a thorough and systematic, well planned, comprehensive effort been made to find such homes.

Plausible arguments are set forth each year for further legislation in the lines above indicated, but it is our conviction that almost without exception such legislation is wrong in principle and harmful in its effects, and should be opposed to the utmost by all who are devoted to the highest interests of public institutions.

The Friendly
Visitor Ideal.

We quoted last month from the printed report of the charity organization

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society of Newport some paragraphs relative to friendly visiting. The Newport society is one of a considerable number of "charity organization societies" or "associated charities" which depend in their relation with poor families more upon the professional worker than upon volunteer "friendly visitors." That there are some very honest differences of opinion regarding the wisdom of such a policy will appear from the following communication from Mrs. James T. Fields, who, as most of our readers know, was one of the pioneers in the "charity organization" or "associated charities" movement in this country, and has continued an active interest in it ever since:

To the Editors of THE CHARITIES REVIEW :

For those persons, and their number grows with every year, who believe in the principles of what is known as the associated charities, the report of the Newport society is disappointing reading. The society announces quite frankly an "abandonment of the method of work by friendly visitors." It is stated in support of this decision that few persons have an aptitude for such work; that it is necessary to look at life from the point of view of the one to be helped, etc.; and further, "However it may have been elsewhere, the method" (*i.e.*, volunteer visiting) "was here found to be impracticable." This breakdown of the work in Newport may lead to a national consolidation of the true associated charities. For the first time this is seen by some of us to be necessary; and from such a federation the Newport society, and other societies tak-

ing a similar position, would have to be omitted; because there is no justice in bearing the name of a large volunteer association when there are no volunteers.

The weakness of the defense offered in justification of the society in Newport is seen when it rejoices in what the saving visitors and the rent collectors are doing, never seeming to see that such visitors are of the same stuff as other visitors, that their work is our work, and that settlement workers, as well as savings and rent collectors, belong to the same business,—that there are always too few of these, and it is only by training, in our offices or settlement houses, that the best work can in any event be done. Helen Bosanquet reduces this idea to the printed page in a most satisfactory manner. But because the visitor should be trained, she does not say there should be no volunteers. On the contrary, she knows, as we all know, that the first company, a kind of Falstaff regiment, with which the associated charities everywhere began, should long ago have been changed or drilled into a group of instructed visitors.

Why Newport should be obliged to acknowledge itself as less capable of good work than some other cities or towns, it remains for the writer of this report to show. Does he mean to declare that there is no religion among her people? That the fashionable and extravagant summer visitors have poisoned the whole population? Are there no churches left in Newport? No devout women, no patriotic men? Or why should their town be so traduced?

The report continues its argument, saying how much harm a visitor who is not instructed may do. Doubtless, but what is the agent of

the associated charities for, who hands the case to a visitor? Is it not the agent's business to say that a visitor is needed in a certain home, to see that the children go to school, or to convey a sick father to the hospital, and see that the family does not starve while he is laid up? It does not matter in the least what the errand is, whether to collect children or to collect rent. The point is, that the well-to-do need to go personally to the homes of the unfortunate, and to gather from the latter's point of view the condition of the otherwise neglected and forlorn.

The Newport report does not fail to recognize the value, as we have stated, of visiting collectors. Why then, on what conceivable or inconceivable grounds, does it fail to keep up its own part of the work by supplying fresh visitors who may reinforce the collectors? Growth or death being the necessary state of all things here below, if the Newport society, or similar societies, are willing to deny themselves growth through the friendly visitor system, they must accept the alternative; and then, we think, in common honesty, they should change their name from one popularly understood to represent an organization of volunteer visitors to what they really are, and speak of themselves simply as "registration bureaus" for other charities.

We must not close this brief paper of criticism, however, without a word of hope. Such societies, we believe, can recover themselves by drawing in volunteer workers. There is no royal road to success in anything; but love for the poor, faith in good work, and the knowledge that what ought to be done can be done, because it is God's work

and not man's,—these principles devoutly followed always bring a certain measure of success.

Annie Fields.

That small portion of the public which is actively interested in the administration of charity may well feel under obligation to the Newport society and to Mrs. Fields for the very frank way in which they have pointed out a fundamental divergence of opinion among charity workers. Now that the difference has been clearly stated, the Editors of the REVIEW trust that there will follow, in these pages, and in the national conferences such judicial discussion of the facts on both sides as will result in complete agreement on some common ground, either of practice, or of mutual respect and forbearance of difference in practice. It would not, however, in our judgment, be helpful to the cause of charity to set apart in different camps those who are engaged in the care and relief of needy families in their homes according as they advocate one method or another. Division according to method has made the history of the Christian church a source of amazement to the thoughtful student, and of indifference to the unthinking masses of to-day. Scientific charity has too small a following to permit their division over questions of method. Such questions, on the contrary, should be welcomed and discussed in a spirit which will advance the truth, whatever that may be.

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**The Charity
Ball.**

At the annual meeting of the united Hebrew charities of Washington, the secretary of the organization stated that "the amount collected from contributors during the past year was unprecedentedly small, so much so that had the association been compelled to rely upon this source alone its usefulness would long since have ceased. Fortunately for the charities, the charity ball proved a great boon to the cause." Reading on from this statement, one would expect to find what we have not found in the reports of any prominent charity society during the past year,—a defense of the charity ball. But this is what followed:

In many cities the practice of giving entertainments of various forms to raise money for charitable or religious purposes has been discountenanced, and almost abandoned. It is justly claimed that all institutions of a philanthropic nature should be supported by voluntary contributions, and the habit of importuning persons to purchase tickets for every seemingly meritorious affair is, to say the least, exceedingly annoying, and is characterized as petty beggary. There is absolutely no reason why our charities are not more liberally supported. Surely our people are fully able to give to this object, and if each would give an amount proportionate to his means, there would be little cause for complaint.

**Hebrew
Charities of
Providence.**

The young men's Hebrew association of Providence has taken up the matter of placing the charities of the Jewish community in that city on a systematic basis. An organi-

zation to be known as the associated Hebrew charities, with Dr. M. B. Gomborg as president, has been formed under the auspices of the young men's association. Among the measures to be taken up are weekly study clubs for the discussion of charity problems, the obtaining of statistical information to serve as a basis for future work, co-operation with the local society for organizing charity, visits to institutions, and the inducing of state institutions and other charitable societies to close their doors to Jewish applicants not recommended by or through the associated Hebrew charities.

Springfield

The associated charities of Springfield, Ill., reports progress made in securing the sympathy and co-operation of the local churches, which, it is stated, were at first chary of the movement, although it was started by the ministerial association. The society reports work accomplished which would indicate active progress in a town of Springfield's population.

Kansas City.

The first annual report of the associated charities of Kansas City, covering eight months of active work, shows 1,441 investigations made, of these 1,311 being for the local provident association. Nine children have been placed in homes; loans have been secured for ten persons; three have been started in business. There has been active co-operation on the part of all the charities of the city. Monthly meetings were held during the winter to consider questions of mutual inter-

est. Some friendly visitors have been secured. A penny-provident fund has just been started.

**Employment
Exchange** A trained nurse with experience in district visiting would like a position in this work.

**Service and
Thanks.** "That family is so ungrateful, I want nothing more to do with them."

This sentiment, a hundred times on the lips, almost daily in the heart, of many a less experienced charity worker, yet very rarely acted on by any one of us, is the subject of an editorial in the *Outlook* of November 17, which we have been asked, and are glad, to quote :

It is natural to expect some expression of appreciation from those upon whom we confer benefits. Men expect to be thanked when they have rendered service, and that expectation is based, not only on the usages of courtesy, but on the human instinct. The ungrateful man and the unappreciative man are visited with something like contempt in public opinion; they are more objectionable than men who commit offenses of a much more serious character. But this natural desire for the appreciation of benefits may become a danger to those who are in the way of rendering service to others; for service ought to have no root in the hope of recognition, any more than sound work ought to be done for the sake of recompense. Recompense is just, and ought to be expected; but a man must put skill, honesty, and thoroughness into his work for the sake of his own integrity; in like manner a man ought to serve his fellows, not for what they are going

to give him in return, but because service is his business in this world.

From one point of view it is a matter of entire indifference whether we are thanked or not. It is no concern of ours whether a great service which we have rendered to a fellow-being draws from him an expression of gratitude; the manner in which our service is met is important to him, not to us; we are concerned with the doing of the deed; he is concerned with his attitude toward our act. It is significant that almost nothing is said in the gospels about the services which men rendered to Christ; everything is said, on the other hand, of the services which Christ rendered to men.

But this way of estimating service never occurred to Christ. It never occurs to the heroic and the self-sacrificing; they are concerned to give the utmost without reference to what is returned to them. It is enough for them to find a fellow-being in a situation which appeals for help; that of itself evokes their activity. Work, if it is to be sustained and powerful, must be the result of an inward conviction, or of a spiritual impulse; it must not depend for its energy on the stimulus which comes from any kind of recognition or gratitude. A man is to serve his country, no matter how badly his country treats him; Benedict Arnold's tragic end is a dramatic example of the corruption which enters into a man's nature when he bases his service, not on duty, but on recognition. A man is to serve his community to the utmost of his ability, and with entire sincerity of devotion, without reference to local recognition. The great servants of society—the teachers, prophets, poets, and leaders—have never looked for pay; rewards were sometimes given them and sometimes denied them, but they poured

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out all that was most original and forceful in their natures under the impulse of conviction or the passion for service. Applause is good if it comes, but a man can do his work without applause. What he can not do is to measure the work by the applause, and to give and do only so much as he is paid for giving and doing.

**The Ebb of
Pauperism
in England.**

The recent annual report of the local government board shows that pauperism in England stands at the lowest point it has ever touched. On the other hand the assessed value of real property has increased with huge strides; more sanitary works have been undertaken than in any previous year; there has been no wide spread epidemic of infectious disease; the death rate has been low; bread has been cheap, and work plentiful.

At the beginning of 1880 there were 74,000 more paupers than in 1900, notwithstanding an increase in population of 6,500,000. The proportion of pauperism, which in the prosperous days of agriculture during the early 70's was nearly fifty per 1,000, is now twenty-five per 1,000; and the reduction has scarcely been retarded, says the *London Times*, by the operation of the act of 1894 which practically placed the control of the election of guardians, and therefore that of the distribution of relief, entirely in the hands of the working classes themselves. It is noticeable that more than a third of the persons relieved were over sixty-five years of age, while of able-bodied adults the number was comparatively insignificant. The variations in the distribution of pauperism through the kingdom seem to be dependent more on the

relief administration than on the relative destitution of the various sections. It is estimated, however, that after all care has been taken to reduce pauperism there will still be left an irreducible minimum of helpless, chronic, and friendless cases, amounting possibly to twelve per 1,000 of the population.

A story is told in the report, worth repeating, of a sturdy loafer who had repeatedly applied for relief on the ground of his inability to work, but had been unable to get a doctor to support his plea. He came in at last, however, triumphantly bearing a medical certificate. Upon being read, this was found to testify to his being affected with "chronic inertia." He was much disappointed at being told he must overcome his indisposition.

It is reported that the supply of homes for boarded-out children is quite unequal to the demand. The best foster-parents are to be found as a rule among the class of agricultural laborers, since in families of a somewhat higher social scale the children are too apt to be received in order to save the wages of a servant, and are treated as household drudges.

EPILEPTICS.

Illinois. It is gratifying to know that

Illinois has, through the persistent efforts of its state board of charities, succeeded in making a beginning towards the establishment of a suitable institution for its dependent epileptics. The institution will be a genuine colony, since it is prescribed in the bill passed by the legislature that "suitable plans and specifications on the cottage system or plan for the construction of the necessary buildings and improvements for the construction of said

epileptic colony" will be undertaken. A census taken some time ago by the state board of charities shows that there are some 3,000 dependent epileptics in the state. No state in the union, that we know of, is better qualified to create a first-class colony for epileptics.

At a recent meeting of the Indiana state board of charities and correction, a committee was appointed to prepare a bill providing for the establishment of a state institution for the care of epileptics. The bill will be presented to the coming legislature.

CHILDREN.

Charity and Humane Societies.

It is noteworthy that Mr. James M. Brown, president of the American humane association, in response to an inquiry as to whether in smaller cities and towns the work of the associated charities and of the humane society, or society for the prevention of cruelty to children, should be combined in one organization, takes strong ground in favor of such combination. In the city of Toledo, the humane society and the associated charities have constituted one organization since 1893. Such a plan is also in operation in Mansfield, Ohio, and it is said to work satisfactorily. Mr. Brown believes that such combination is desirable generally in small cities and towns.

Georgia.

It would be hard to conceive of a proposition combining more mischievous features than that which, according to the *Journal* of Atlanta, has been introduced in the legislature of Georgia,

providing for the establishment of a juvenile reformatory in any county in that state on the recommendation of the grand jury. These juvenile reformatories are to receive destitute, neglected, and delinquent children, and are to be established and maintained on the county poor farms.

The sixty-seventh annual report of the Boston children's friend society shows evidence of increasing acceptance of the plan of boarding destitute infants in families. As the plan has been in operation longer in Massachusetts than elsewhere in the United States, its increasing use in that state by private charities as well as public is significant. At the beginning of the year covered by the report there were fifty-five children in the home maintained by the society; at its close only twenty-five. The decrease was due to a succession of epidemics of contagious diseases. Partly as a result of this the management began some months ago to board out some of the young children in families, having engaged for the oversight of this work and as general secretary of the society, an agent experienced in placing-out methods. The report of the board of directors indulges in the following not unnatural reflection: "We all feel very sad when we think that we have no nursery full of bright-faced babies that we can visit, and we shall truly miss that department of our work; but we are sure that the home in the country, where each dear little one can be cared for as one of the family, is doing more

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for the child than we could do for it when we had it in the protecting shelter of our own sunny nursery."

Children's Courts.

The commission appointed to revise the charter of New York city has under consideration the establishment of a separate court for the trial of children. The measure is actively supported by the charity organization society, the children's aid society, the state charities aid association, the Brooklyn bureau of charities, and many other organizations.

A separate children's court is also under consideration in Denver, where it is believed an effort will be made to establish one.

Australia. The report of the state children's council of South Australia for the year ending September 30, 1900, states that all charges against children under eighteen years of age are now heard at the court held under the state children's department, and adds that, "now South Australia may claim to be the only country where a separate and distinct lockup and court are provided for the detention and trial of all children under eighteen years of age."

The number of children under the control of the department on June 30, 1900, was 1,248, an increase of twenty-five during the year.

These children were distributed as follows:

In an industrial school (temporary home)	57
In four reformatories.	125
Placed out in families in the colony ..	1,016
In various special institutions ..	16
Out of the colony with their guardians ..	17
Absconded	17
	<hr/> 1,248

The 1,016 children placed out are distributed as follows:

Boarded out.	619
Placed at service	285
Placed with relatives without subsidies ..	56
Adopted	53
Apprenticed	2
On probation	1
	<hr/> 1,016

Concerning the children placed out there were received during the year 3,193 reports from visiting committees and visitors, 1,877 from special inspectors, and 1,613 from school teachers.

Mr. Elbridge T. Gerry, for twenty years president of the New York society for the prevention of cruelty to children, has resigned from that position, his resignation to take effect January 1, 1901. Mr. Vernon M. Davis, formerly assistant district attorney, has been elected as his successor. In view of the onerous duties of the position it is hereafter to be a salaried one. Mr. Gerry remains one of the directors of the society and its counsel.

It is a great pleasure to record the offer of Mr. Andrew Carnegie to build a technical school in connection with Carnegie institute at Pittsburgh and endow it with a million dollars. In speaking of this, Mr. Carnegie states that he considers the work done at the Drexel institute in Philadelphia, the Pratt institute in Brooklyn, the Armor institute in Chicago, and the technical institutes in Boston and Worcester as most encouraging. It is noteworthy that this splendid donation to the cause of industrial

Industrial
Training in
Pittsburgh

education is for the purpose of establishing a school in which residence and support from the funds of the institution are not included. It is to be simply a day school, and as such its benefits will be accessible to a much larger number than if it were a residence school; and it will be free from many objections that necessarily attach to the latter class of institutions.

The Institution Child. At the meeting of the New York federation of women's clubs in Albany last month, a paper was read by Miss Arria S. Huntington, of Syracuse, on public bounty to pauper children. She said that children reared in orphan asylums are robbed of the most powerful influences, aside from religion, in our lives, namely those coming from the family and society. Miss Huntington pointed out the defects of the present system for caring for destitute children in New York state, and stated some of the difficulties in the way of a change of policy: the opposition of vested interests, from the costly character of the existing orphanages, and the local pride felt in them; also the effects of tradition upon officials, who naturally follow the old ways.

In the discussion, Mrs. Harriet Townsend, of Buffalo, spoke from long experience in favor of the boarding home, and protested that the placing-out of a child could not be done by the orphanage directors, but must be under separate management. Mrs. Manning Smith, of New York, dwelt upon the evils of massing children in large institutions, remarking that it was a survival from the earlier days when the asylum was the refuge in unsettled times for those who could not otherwise be protected. The contract

system of employing institution children, formerly more common than it is to-day, was stated to be in a considerable measure responsible for the development of the present aggregation in institutions.

The rest of the hour devoted to philanthropy was given to a practical paper upon the kitchen garden and domestic training of girls, from Mrs. Thorn, of Utica. Attention was called to the difficulty of giving institution children instruction on technical lines without the supplemental experience of family life. It has been found that lessons in cookery given to orphanage girls are of little effect, as the pupils have no opportunity to put what they learn into immediate practice.

STATE BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

California. A movement is taking shape in California for the organization of a state conference of charities, with an indirect view to the establishment of a state board of charities. It is probable that the conference will be held early in January, and representatives from all parts of the state and also prominent workers from without the state will be present.

Kansas. The report of the board of trustees of the charitable institutions of the state of Kansas makes the following recommendations:

We earnestly recommend that the management of the institutions be divorced from partisan politics. It can be easily done. An act limiting to three, the members of one political party who might serve on the board of trustees, and forbidding removal of an officer or employé for political reasons, would do the work. Under

the present ical upheaval removal of employés, to make successful help must be detrimental great evils charitable appreciation intimate. The last preceding tions. should o see, as tutions h to the pa

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the present régime, with every political upheaval bringing about the removal of officers, and by the removal of officials, a change in employés, from superintendent down, to make room for the partisans of the successful party, much inexperienced help must be employed, greatly to the detriment of the institutions. The great evil of political control of charitable institutions can only be appreciated by those who have been intimately connected with the work. The last republican board of trustees preceding us made the same suggestions. Why any political party should oppose this reform we cannot see, as the patronage of these institutions has always proven a damage to the party in power.

Quite a telling little sermon is this, from an experienced and authoritative source, and one that might well be heeded by older and larger states, some of whose politicians look with anxious eyes for the little scraps of patronage that can be obtained from the state institutions, and regard as their natural enemies those who attempt to stand between them and the homes, houses of refuge, asylums, and other institutions which they seek to control.

There are eight institutions under the jurisdiction of the Kansas board of trustees. Their total cost during the year 1899, including maintenance and repairs and salaries and wages, was \$49,834.

The annual report of the
Indiana.

Indiana school for feeble-minded youth at Ft. Wayne shows an increase in the number of inmates in the institution from 647 to

761 for the current year. It is expected that the number will soon be brought up to over 800. Emphasis is laid by the trustees upon the need of custodial provision for all feeble-minded women. The cost of maintenance of the institution has decreased from \$239 per capita in 1889 to \$133 in 1900.

The Georgia
Insane.

The annual report of the asylum trustees of Georgia with reference to the state sanatorium at Milledgeville shows that the institution contains at present nearly 2,500 inmates. The trustees have been compelled to remove 100 incurable cases from the asylum and return them to their respective counties, in order that room may be made for violent and incipient cases. The trustees protested vigorously against the necessity of removing these insane from state care, and ask for increased appropriation for new buildings, not only on this account, but because of the great age of some of those now in use. Reference is again made to the need of separating the convict insane from the other insane. The time necessary to keep these under constant observation detracts from the service which the attendants could render to the ordinary inmates, and frequently it is not possible to prevent their escape.

New York
Prison
Politics.

It has long been known that penal institutions in the state of New York are hopelessly in the toils of partisan politics. It is doubtful, however, if

the disgraceful fact has ever been more unblushingly stated than in the following clipping, reproduced from the *New York Times* of recent date :

The appointment of John E. Corscadden as superintendent of the Albany county penitentiary is a blow to the Herrick-Crocker-Murphy combination up the state, in the opinion of politicians. To make the blow all the more severe, the appointment is for five years.

Charles F. Dearstyne, a republican, has been the keeper. The appointment is vested in the county clerk and district attorney of Albany county and a commissioner appointed by the board of supervisors. County clerk P. E. McCabe is a Hill man and a great friend of Eugene Wood, District-attorney Zeb A. Dyer trains with Herrick, Murphy, and Crocker, while Isaac Haswell, the third member of the commission, is a republican.

Messrs. Herrick, Murphy, and Crocker believed that they had arranged a deal by which they could supersede Dearstyne with James McIntyre, ex-superintendent, and boasted of it. But when the commission met, Dyer alone voted against Corscadden, who was elected.

This act gives the great patronage of the penitentiary to ex-Senator Hill and his friends, and it is said will make the Hill-Wood faction supreme in Albany democratic politics.

HOSPITALS.

We hear more or less frequently of cases where hospital patients have died, and even been buried in the potter's field, before relatives had any information to the effect that their condition was serious. A particularly painful instance of this kind has recently occurred in connection with a hospital in Washington. The facts, as reported in the papers, are that a little girl was burned severely in an accident at home, and was taken to the hospital in an ambulance. A brother who had been burned in attempting to relieve his sister was refused permission to accompany her in the

ambulance, though he was afterwards treated at the hospital, and the father of the child was, of course, not allowed to ride in the ambulance. The latter visited the hospital shortly afterwards, but was not permitted to see his daughter, on the ground that she was crying to go home and the presence of her father would injure her condition. It was, however, reported that the child was doing nicely. Similar information was given up to one o'clock in the morning. At four o'clock that morning the child died, and the parents were not informed until nine o'clock, and then by a police officer. It would seem that the child was not afforded the last rites of her church. The hospital physician, in a published statement, asserts that the child to all appearances was doing well, as had been reported, and that her death was sudden and a surprise to the attending nurse.

Every one who has to do with the poor knows the difficulty with which they are persuaded to avail themselves of the benefits of hospital treatment for themselves or for relatives. Even in the homes of the well-to-do, where the advantages of hospital equipment are understood much better, there is a certain feeling of dread of entrusting any of the loved ones of the home to the hospital. In the face of such sentiment as this, seriously interfering even in its vaguest expression with the benefits which our hospitals should confer upon the sick of the entire community, it is particularly unfortunate that an impression

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should be given out that the patient once committed to the hospital is lost to the home. In view of the distressing instance which we have noted, we have secured from a number of representative hospitals of the country some statement regarding access of friends and clergy to patients whose condition is assumed to be critical. Of course it is a matter of common information that hospitals in general do not permit visitors to the wards except on certain appointed days and within certain restrictions made with a view to reducing the strain of such visits upon those visited and upon the general quiet of the ward as a sick room.

In the Presbyterian hospital of New York city, when the patient is first brought in, if relatives or friends come with him, they are allowed to go to the ward, that they may see the conditions under which he is to be placed. They are, as a rule, permitted to see him the following day. After that they are required to observe the regular rules for visitors. Whenever a patient is to be operated upon some relative is notified and is permitted to see the patient before the operation and on the day after. If all goes well, visitation thereafter is according to rule. Whenever a patient is regarded as dangerously ill, the house physician or surgeon must send a notice at once to the superintendent. A blank is provided for such notices, and this blank must be filed after each morning visit to the wards whether there are any serious cases noted or not. If later in the day a patient becomes seriously ill, another blank is sent to the office with the name of the patient thereon. The clerk who has this matter in charge immediately

sends, if the condition is alarming, a telegram to the patient's relatives. If a telegram is not necessary either a letter or a postal card is sent to the relatives, and they are permitted to see the patient at any time, day or night. The chaplain of the hospital visits the wards daily, and whenever a patient desires to see another clergyman, word is sent to any clergyman named by him. In the case of catholics, if no one is specified, notice is sent to the Dominican fathers, whose residence is very near by.

The superintendent adds: "When patients are not reported by the physician as seriously ill, we are quite rigid as to our rules, believing that the hospital wards should be regarded as a sick room and kept as quiet as possible; and we are constantly refusing friends permission to pass to the wards when the condition of the patient is good. It does, however, happen upon rare occasions that friends have called and been refused admission, and a few hours afterward the physician reported the patient's condition to have suddenly become critical, and it may be the patient dies before friends can get here. Our instructions to physicians in regard to the matter is to be on the safe side with patients who are very sick."

The superintendent of the Roosevelt hospital, also in New York city, makes a very similar statement. In case of patients being pronounced critically ill by the house physician or surgeon, the head nurse is required to report the fact to the superintendent, who sends a telegram to the nearest friend of record. Until the alarming symptoms have abated, near relatives or friends to the number of not more than two at a time are permitted to visit the patient at any seasonable hour. The fact of the death of a patient is at once communicated by a telegram

to the friend of record, unless that friend is present at the time of the patient's death. During the rounds of the professional staff, visitors are absolutely excluded, in order that the physicians may have perfect quiet and the most favorable conditions for the careful study of the physical condition of the patients. In this hospital, while the proper conduct of the institution requires prescribed visiting days, it seldom happens that permission is refused to see a patient when a reasonable excuse is given for such exception to the rule.

The Pennsylvania hospital, in Philadelphia, has a rule that relatives and clergymen may always see patients who are considered dangerously ill. When, however, a patient remains in a serious condition for some time, and the danger does not seem to be immediate, the visiting must necessarily be restricted. Relatives are notified by messenger or by telegram when the condition of a patient becomes serious. Friends are notified of the death of a patient in the same manner, and such messages are started from the hospital immediately. "It sometimes happens that patients die very unexpectedly, and perhaps soon after the family have been told that there is no immediate danger and have not been allowed to see the patient. This does not happen often, but when it does, we are usually censured, although we think unjustly so."

In the Johns Hopkins hospital, in Baltimore, visits are not restricted to the regular day and hours in cases of alarming illness. An effort is invariably made to notify the friends if at any time the condition of the patient is thought to be critical. In some extremely rare cases, where the patient hovers between life and death, the presence of distressed, anxious, and often demon-

strative friends is a distinct detriment to the patient's recovery. Even in these instances, however, an interview on the part of friends is not forbidden, although sometimes advised against. In all instances the patient is put in communication with a clergyman, and the privilege of visiting the sick is always accorded to his pastor.

It is the experience in this hospital, as in the others we have mentioned, that, in some instances, patients who are not thought to be very ill pass away suddenly in consequence of unexpected complications. On the other hand, there are many visitors who are a serious detriment to the patients. It is often difficult to adopt a course which will satisfy the friends of the patients, and at the same time not prove injurious to the person who is sick. Communication with relatives is effected, as in other hospitals, by telegraph, telephone, or a messenger, and where the destination of the message is at all accessible, the friends of the patient are usually reached within an hour.

The rules which we have noted above are in force, so far as we know, in every good hospital in the country. It is not entirely clear that in the instance cited quite as much patience was exercised as might have been in making these rules of procedure clear to the parent of the sick child, and it is possible that there may have been an error of judgment. There would seem to have been excessive delay in reporting the death of the patient. But it is certain that no hospital would deliberately deprive the friends of a dying patient the privilege of being with him in his last hours. We may conclude, then, that a patient

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in the hospital is nearly as accessible in case of emergency as if he were at home, and that the chances of dying unattended by friends are governed there by the same conditions as the chances of one's passing away by accident on the street or at home away from the equally indispensable presence of the physician. If a choice is to be made between accessibility of friends and of prompt medical service, such as every good hospital guarantees, there should be no hesitation in choosing the latter, with such slight risk as it entails. There are unquestionably cases in which subordinate officials of hospitals display an unwonted boorishness in the exercise of rules. A brief word, however, with the superintendent of the hospital, or with the trustees, will very quickly correct any such tendency. The well-to-do public need not hesitate on this account to rely upon the hospital in cases where skillful medical treatment and nursing is required, nor need we hesitate to recommend the hospital's care in those cases of sickness with which we come in contact in our work among the poorer classes.

**Public School
Charities.**

By order of the municipal council of Brussels, a city which has long been noted for efforts in behalf of destitute and neglected children, an investigation has been made into the living conditions of the children attending public schools. The report of this investigation indicates a thorough piece of work, and as a review of

the prevailing policy in Brussels and elsewhere in Europe regarding public contribution to the physical nurture and comfort of under-fed and ill-clad school children, it has interest for American readers. We quote from a résumé of the report made for the report of the United States commissioner of education for 1898-9, recently issued:

In 1888 the "progress club" was authorized by the collège échevinal of Brussels to provide soup for the needy children of the primary schools on their leaving school at noon. The distribution ultimately took place in the school buildings, the city furnishing the tables and clearing up the dishes and rooms, and also providing drays and men for prompt and regular transportation to the different schools. The public contributed to the work of the club, but in time its receipts diminished, so that in 1891 the city was asked for a subsidy of 5,000 francs. "While acknowledging the philanthropic sentiment which dictated the request and the zeal of the promoters of the work, the collège saw in the grant the beginning of a constantly increasing expenditure which would, before long, result in an enormous charge for the city." Doubt was felt, indeed, whether the feeding of poor children was really an obligation incumbent upon the commune. Still the grant was made, upon condition that it should be for one year only. The anticipated result followed, the official intervention of the city gradually leading to the withdrawal of private assistance, so that two years later, in 1893, the club was compelled to ask for an increase of its regular subsidy to 10,000 francs, and for an additional subsidy of 5,000 francs for clothing.

The result was the appointment

of a commission to examine into the condition of the children who attend communal schools, in regard to their food, lodging, and clothing.

The first report of the commission, made in the year subsequent, showed that of some 15,000 children in attendance in the primary schools and kindergarten, seventeen per cent had insufficient foot wear, twenty-five per cent were ill clothed, and twenty-five per cent were insufficiently fed. The expense necessary to provide for the wants indicated was estimated at 389,000 francs (\$77,800) a year. This amount being quite beyond the financial resources of the city, the commission was instructed to gather information regarding the policy in other places on the continent:

**Unsolicited
Aid to Needy
Children.**

Ghent—Children attending the écoles gardiennes, whose parents request it, may stay at the school all day, and these receive one ration of soup at noon. The number of such children diminishes in proportion as the schools multiply and are nearer the houses of the children.

Bordeaux—Food and clothing are supplied by sociétés de patronage. Some schools receive only food. For the écoles maternelles there are ladies' committees, who make the clothing.

Rotterdam—Food was first supplied to school children in 1885 by a private individual, who bore all the expenses until 1891. The number of children and the expense increasing too heavily from year to year, friends aided. The city provides the rooms. In 1893 a special society was formed to care for the accessory work of distributing clothing.

Berlin—The Verein für Kinder-volksküchen, which is not subsidized by the city, furnished 500,000 complete meals in 1894, the first year of its existence. If it be assumed that the distribution took place only in

the winter months, or for 125 days, and that the cost per meal was five cents, this society must have fed 4,000 children and paid out \$25,000. The money for this purpose is derived from interest of endowments administered by the city, subscriptions from charitable clubs, and appropriations made by the city.

Vienna—The distribution of food is carried out by a society administered by a commission of thirty members, eight of whom are delegates from the communal council. Its bank deposit is supplied by an annual subsidy of \$10,000 from the city, by legacies, gifts, and assessments upon its members. The receipts from these last three sources amounted to \$6,906 in 1893-4, of which \$2,681 was added to the reserve fund, which amounts to \$54,875, producing an annual revenue of \$2,655. The expense of the distribution for 1893-4 was \$14,623.50. The society appoints a local committee in each quarter, whose duty is to make inquiries and superintend the distributions.

In Vienna there are crèches, écoles gardiennes, and kindergartens. The first two are attended only by children of the working classes, while the kindergartens have pupils from the well-to-do. In the crèches and in certain écoles gardiennes all the pupils are fed free of expense. In the other écoles gardiennes food is only supplied gratis to those pupils who do not go home at noon. The same is true in certain official kindergartens. The city grants an appropriation for these schools.

All indigent children can participate in the gratuitous distribution of clothing without the necessity of going to school for that purpose.

Orphans or abandoned children committed by the city to foster fathers get their clothing from them. If they can not furnish it, they can obtain it from the committee on

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charities, on proper representation, the funds coming from legacies, orphans' banks, subscriptions, etc. Funds for supplying clothing in winter through local committees come from similar sources and from appropriations to each committee by the communal administration. This appropriation amounts to \$8,000.

Antwerp.—All children in the kindergartens participate in the distribution of soup, and pay at the rate of one cent per plate when the cost is one and a half cents. In 1893 the total expense for kindergartens was \$8,400, while the children paid \$7,000. The expense is borne by the bureau of charities. Clothing is supplied by private societies.

Paris.—The law of 1882 affecting public instruction made it obligatory upon the communes to establish one or more school banks, whose funds are supplied by the city, the department, and the state, together with private gifts. Their object is to furnish assistance of all kinds to indigent children—clothing, shoes, food, school books, financial aid, school colonies. The school banks of Paris possess a large reserve fund. In 1892 their receipts proper amounted to \$232,553, besides grants from the conseil général, the municipality, and the government. Their expenses during the same period were \$379,216, only a very small portion of which was devoted to food. In 1893 the contribution of the school banks to the school canteens amounted to only \$1,500.

The food is distributed by the school canteens, and is free for poor children. Children who are able to pay can get a complete meal for two or three cents, the net cost being five or six cents. The school canteens are administered by the commission of school banks.

Lyons.—Food is furnished by the school canteens, which are under the direction of the municipal authorities. These canteens furnish meals for tickets, which are supplied gratis to needy children and sold at three cents each to those who can afford to pay for them.

Lille.—The city only subsidizes the school bank. Some societies have organized canteens for primary schools.

Koubaix.—The distribution of food and clothing is made by the school bank. The pupils of the primary schools receive no food yet, but will soon participate in the distribution.

Marseilles.—The food is distributed in the school canteens, which also sell it at a low price to non-indigent children. Clothing is distributed by the school bank.

Barmen.—Most of the money for food and clothing for poor children comes from private sources.

Geneva.—There is no central committee. The first kitchens were established in 1887 by a private society, which superintended the distribution. Owing to the inconvenience of attending to this work—which often required going some distance—and the increase in the work itself, it was finally turned over to independent local committees.

Liège.—Gratuitous distribution of food to the children of kindergartens has been going on for more than forty years. All children of these schools can participate in it. Clothing is only giving to the needy children who are designated by the head teachers. The city lends the poor children cloaks for the winter, which must be returned at the close of the season. There is besides a distribution of clothing by a society, "le vestiaire libéral," which distributed 3,558 articles (shoes, trousers,

shirts, etc.) in 1893-4 at a cost of \$1,900.

In all the preceding cases the distribution requires some formality, such as request, authorization by the committees, etc.

Conclusions. From these returns some general principles are deducible. These are: First. That nowhere is the right to assistance in food and clothing recognized for all pupils. Second. That except in France the organization of assistance for poor pupils is everywhere left to private initiative. The returns show what the latter can do when the efforts are concentrated, and the attention and sympathy of the public kept constantly awakened. Such organization and concentration, the commission felt, had been wanting in Brussels.

This examination of the situation convinced the collège that it would not be wise to do more than continue the aid to private charity which it had in the past given. To maintain the children of the whole community seemed preposterous. In case of most of these needy children, again, it was found that the blame lay upon the idleness, debauchery, or improvidence of the parents. To aid the children of such was to encourage further improvidence. Where the need was genuine, and unmerited, as in the case of the children of widows or persons temporarily in distress in consequence of stoppage of work, or of sickness, it is not only the children who need assistance from the public, but the entire family. Such a child may properly receive food and clothing at school, as a case of emergency.

Besides the free soup, frequent distributions of clothing are made in the primary schools of Brussels. The administration of charities provided clothing for over 1,000 children.

Such clothing as is made in the manual training work of the girls' schools is distributed to the other needy pupils. Sixteen physicians are in constant supervision of the children. Those in poor health take every day a dose of cod-liver oil or of zootrophic powder, which is supplied by the public charities. In 1894-5, 3,676 children were subjected to preventive treatment, and at the end of the year improvement was noted in ninety-two per cent of the cases. A public dentist, who visits the schools weekly, treated 1,292 children. These sanitary efforts are not considered by the municipality beyond its sphere, nor fit objects of private charity. Their expense amounts to 10,000 or 11,000 francs a year.

Galveston Relief Funds.

As is the usual experience, complaint has been made that the relief funds in the hands of the Galveston relief committee were being diverted from the needy and used up for salaries, administration, etc. The following facts, as stated by a Galveston newspaper representative, are of interest:

The committee is made up of the best business men of the city. Restrictions have been thrown about distributions, but not so exacting but that it is now difficult in Galveston to secure servants. Ample provisions have been made for maintaining the distressed throughout the entire winter. A fund of \$400,000 is being used for erecting temporary houses; \$300,000 is to be distributed among the needy for restoring household effects. There is a reserve fund not to be used until the new year, for new emergencies which may arise. Workingmen

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have been supplied with tools, seamstresses with machines, truck-farmers with ploughs and teams, draymen with horses. Every able-bodied person has been put in condition to be self-supporting.

After the arrival of Miss Barton, the entire relief was distributed under the direction of the "red cross." Salaries are paid only to clerks, draymen, etc., and no member of the distributing committee receives any compensation. Some mistakes have been made, but not many. The "red cross" has assisted those outside of Galveston, by the distribution of 1,000,000 strawberry plants among the berry growers of the storm district who are not able to supply themselves.

**Concert
Halls in
Buffalo.**

The anti-saloon league of western New York has led a successful fight against the free concert saloons, which have been a pest in Buffalo, not only in the notorious Canal street district, but also in some quarters otherwise respectable. With the support of some business-men's organizations and many citizens they have procured a unanimous vote of the common council regulating the concert halls until May 1, after which date no more licenses for concert halls will be granted. This is a part of Buffalo's house-cleaning for its Pan-American exposition.

**Chicago's
Pawnshop.**

The state pawners' society of Chicago has filed its first annual report. It shows that 15,557 loans were made during the year, averaging \$15 each.

Of this number half have been repaid. The earnings of the society in interest, storage, and insurance amount to over \$12,000, and the average return on the capital stock has been about seven per cent net. The average length of time on loans has been four and one-half months.

Public Baths. The public bath movement spreads. Worcester's municipal council is investigating the question; there has been an agitation for one, and favorable municipal action, in New Haven; St. Paul, after striking success with summer baths, wishes an all-winter establishment; Minneapolis does not intend to be left behind, and is contemplating river bath houses; Rochester, pleased with the popularity of its municipal bathing establishment, which has been patronized by an average of over one hundred and fifty persons daily since its opening a year and a half ago, wishes to build one, or even two, more bath houses. The estimated cost of running the Rochester plant is said to be \$3,200.

Ex-representative Samuel J. Barrows, of Massachusetts, has accepted the position of secretary of the New York prison association, from which Mr. W. M. F. Round resigned some months ago. Mr. Barrows has had a very wide experience in prison work, and it is felt that he will continue to make this office, as it has been in the past, a place of great opportunity and responsibility.

THE TENEMENT AND TUBERCULOSIS :

APPROPOS OF THE MOVEMENT FOR BETTER HOUSING CONDITIONS IN NEW YORK.

BY JOHN H. PRYOR.

Last spring the news that another effort to secure tenement-house reform in New York had been sanctioned by the legislature awakened new hope and expectation. The investigation is almost completed, and those who share in the struggles against the wrongs and sorrows of the poor anxiously await the outcome of another attempt to attack a cause, instead of results. We know the results of tenement-house life, and are familiar with the diverse philanthropic endeavors to palliate them. Will new measures be adequate or partial? Will they be designed to check or to control? If adopted as a law, will power be dissipated by provisions allowing discretionary action, or will lack of machinery for enforcement make the intent idle?

Since 1867 numerous tenement-house laws have been enacted. Most of the evils of tenement-house life would have been avoided had the laws been enforced or the direct responsibility fixed. The law of 1867 is, in many ways, the best that has been obtained, and had it remained unchanged the tenement problem in New York to-day would not be so vast and puzzling. The history of tenement-house legislation portrays too many evidences of compromise with selfish interests and unwarranted concessions to false public

opinion. The reform spirit has yielded to the widespread belief that huge tenements are necessary, because the unusual conditions make expansion almost impossible, and land very valuable. The plea has been employed successfully that needed improvements in building and sanitation are impracticable, because the increased expense would make the price of rent prohibitive. The demands for surroundings which are imperative for good citizenship have been met with the old argument that New York must have its big tenements, and they can not be profitably built and maintained according to ideas of safety, health, and happiness.

Many wise provisions of earlier laws have been repealed. As a striking example of enlightened endeavor to remedy existing evils I will cite this one grim change: For years each occupant of a tenement was allowed 600 cubic feet of air. In 1900 the amount must have been regarded as excessive, and air was apportioned with exact nicety—400 feet to the adult and 200 feet to the child being left discretionary. By what quaint method of calculation the conclusion was arrived at that the adult was over-indulgent and the child prodigal with the most expensive commodity in New

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York I do not know. Perhaps this conservative estimate was influenced by the customary respect for capital and income. This factor has always been very carefully considered in the controversy. Such questions appeal to the inhabitants of large cities where wealth and the size of the population are a matter of civic pride.

The amount of philanthropic work performed is stupendous, and the money expended by the municipality and the citizen almost fabulous. It is no wonder that such generosity occasionally gives rise to self-approval. But, on reflection, is this charity more than the conscience price for living in a great city which nature never intended for a vast population? How long a time will elapse, if no check is applied, before poverty will mean life in surroundings hostile to mind, soul, and body?

Immigration constantly increases an undesirable tenement-house population. The mass of foreigners are no longer assimilated as they were. They are passing beyond our reach. The influx of Russian Jews has taxed the traditional benevolence of those of their own faith to the utmost, or beyond. Is there not good cause for the fear that the army battling against crime, immorality, lost hope, disease, want, and the myriad forms of distress, will surely lose in the conflict if reform is not carried into the home? We have learned the English methods of palliation, and are working at the wrong end. London now acknowledges a "submerged class." Our

vicious conditions and surroundings have not had time to produce full results. Generations of tenement-house dwellers in tenement-house districts are required to show what environment and inheritance can do. The poor immigrant has become accustomed to conditions which can never produce a being of the American type, and is easily content. He needs little food, little air, little comfort, and his capabilities are limited accordingly. If the child wants more, he can often find better ventilation in the prison, and more comfort and sociability in the saloon. It is easy for him to become immoral or a-moral. The success of the kindergarten and the church and college settlement is due to the fact that they begin with the child and influence home life. Yet who clamors more for tenement-house reform than these workers, who know that the degenerate and the diseased, the ignorant voter, and the tool of that American product the political "boss," are the natural supply to fill the institutions and the graves.

We have built a big city, much of which must be torn down; we are repeating the blunders of Europe, and the time will come when we will pause, and ask, "Must a big city necessarily be made up of huge buildings, crammed with human beings who have little sunlight and air? Are not the effects too appalling?" Shall we forever indulge in sentiment over bigness and ugliness, and boast of prosperity and wealth, when the superior

position which we claim for our poor is becoming a hideous lie? When wealth is measured in comparison with staggering poverty and distress it is a humbug, and no city where a vast population lives in crowded tenements where the air is insufficient, foul, or tainted with disease, and where the sun never shines, can be truly great, have a decent government, or add strength to a nation.

Reforms are won largely by emotion. Occasionally intelligence and science lead the way, but measures which reach the poor come like a tear or an oath,—when the feeling, long stifled, breaks into tangible form. Pile up the facts and figures, quibble over the multitude of technicalities, figure how much can be accomplished without any interference with the almost sacred vested rights, and any new law will be almost as good as the last, and about as effective. We may not demolish, but we can plan for the future and prevent.

The fact that the tenement-house sufferer feels no wrong makes his case the stronger. Let him know the big meaning of the movement in his behalf, and he will learn the argument of the situation, which can be contained in two sentences: "no rights without duties," should be the answer to the investor; and the rightful plea of those who feel the results should be "if I work and earn enough to pay any rent I am entitled to safe and healthful surroundings, and should be protected." If that right and protection can not

be given to a man with a slender income, then this is no asylum for the poor, and he should go elsewhere, be pauperized, or degenerate and die. The fight for tenement-house reform should be made on the broad principle of good citizenship. That includes all the pleas made for improvement. It appeals to common sense, unites its supporters, and sensational and exaggerated claims are avoided.

In each movement there is usually a blending of sympathy and alarm. Typhus fever and cholera in the tenements fill the populace with fear and apprehension, and efforts for better sanitation are prompt and quite thorough. A threatened outbreak of cholera can always be depended upon to secure temporary improvements. The danger from cholera is usually slight, and the spasm of reform so sure, that a suspected case should be supplied annually. When the imagined danger comes near, the voice of the thrifty is heard repeating the prayer, "God bless me and my wife; my son and his wife. Us four, but no more. Amen." Then is hysteria manifested in a cry for radical measures, regardless of expense.

But medical science has won new triumphs and dread has given way to security. The well-known infectious diseases are quickly confined, and the number of sufferers has diminished marvelously. Inspection of the milk supply and other agencies have decreased the infant mortality, and the public has a new delusion that infection from tenement

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life is a thing of the past and that disease no longer finds a harbor in these dark colonies of poverty. But the penalty can not be escaped. Now tuberculosis reigns, and the record of suffering and death is almost unparalleled. An epidemic lasts for days—tuberculosis and its awful results seem to be everlasting. Of all the causes of suffering, sorrow, and destitution, tuberculosis has taken the lead and maintains it. About six thousand people die of consumption of the lungs alone in New York city each year, and about fourteen thousand annually in the state. This is equivalent to the depopulation of a city every year. Accurate reports would undoubtedly increase the figures given. It is estimated the one-sixth of all the deaths are due to some form of tuberculosis, and there can be no doubt that, under existing conditions, at least one-seventh of the population of New York city will succumb to tuberculosis. Tuberculosis causes more deaths than all other infectious diseases combined. Nor do these figures reveal the extent and prevalence of the disease. The results of post-mortem examinations, included with the death rate, show that the majority of all poor tenement-house dwellers at some time have tuberculosis in some form.

Why does this condition prevail? Has science made no advance? We know the cause—that the disease is infectious under certain conditions—and how to prevent it. We know that the disease is curable in a large per cent of cases in the early stage.

How much has this recent advance in knowledge benefited the public and the consumptive? Partial measures have limited the spread of the disease and decreased the per capita death rate. The actual number of deaths remains about the same. Education has helped, but the public is inadequately protected and the victim's distress is increased by hysterical fear. He is shunned and discharged from employment. The fortunate avoid the unfortunate, and without just cause try to force the consumptive into hopeless isolation. Tuberculosis has not decreased as rapidly as other infectious diseases. It has apparently shared in the recent great decrease of the general death rate.

We must have state prevention to secure the adoption and enforcement of uniform laws in each community. New York state lags behind Massachusetts and Michigan. Special hospitals and sanatoria must be supplied for the care of the early and advanced cases. But the time to attack the disease is before it begins, by removing the causes which furnish the soil. The natural breeding place is the bad tenement house. It encourages the growth and dissemination of the germs, and vicious surroundings supply material upon which they feed. Sunlight and fresh air are the greatest enemies of the disease, and the lack of these essentials to healthful life makes any section or district the home and the focus from which it spreads. If poverty consigns people to such

colonies, and the poor have little chance for selection of proper homes, then the chief penalty to-day of being poor is tuberculosis. The statement can not be disputed that the vast majority of consumptives are the victims of that disease because they, or their parents, have felt the results of poverty, and it is also true that most consumptives die simply because they are poor.

Consumption is the saddest thing the world has ever known, and the stupid, antiquated, inhuman treatment, or disgraceful neglect, of the vast army constantly marching to the grave is the cruelest thing in history. I will not except the care of the insane in medieval times, when the helpless creatures were chained to a post or wore manacles. Ignorance excused that barbarism. Knowledge accuses with an avalanche of proof to-day. Every sufferer from any other disease can secure proper treatment. Efforts toward prevention from other infectious diseases are intelligently directed. The consumptive alone belongs to a class for which no provision has been made. He is the unique, pathetic victim of modern ignorance and apathy. His hope lies in early treatment, and he knows that it is futile. He struggles along for months and years, receiving useless aid, and is pauperized when too late. When shall we learn that the consumptive must be cared for in the right way, at the right time, and in the right place, until he is well—not at the wrong time, in the wrong way, and in the wrong place, until he is dead.

It is estimated that there are constantly 20,000 consumptives in the tenements of New York city. There are good reasons for believing this estimate to be too low, and yet I speak of tuberculosis of the lungs alone. Most of these afflicted people remain in their homes until they die. This city has not, and does not, supply accommodations for the care of these people. The Henry law, enacted last year, gave cities of the first class the power to build hospitals for consumptives outside of their city limits. This has not received the approval of the mayor of New York city, and another year has gone by with nothing accomplished in this direction. The largest hospitals have refused to admit consumptives because of an unjustifiable fear of infection. Recently consumptives have been denied admission to the hospitals of this city, and have died in the street. By remaining in their homes they spread infection, and no more certain means could be employed for the contamination of others than the failure to destroy the expectoration and the dissemination of the dry material by the sweepings of dust. By studying the reports of the cases of tuberculosis and the death returns from certain localities, it will be observed that the disease is limited, to a very large extent, to certain buildings, and practically all the deaths from tuberculosis in this city occur in a very small percentage of buildings in the tenement-house district.

It is hard to teach the tenement-house dweller the dangers of infection from this disease. The sufferer

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can not be as careful as he might be elsewhere. The crowding increases the risk; and the victim carries or brings the infection from the workshops. Where the germs are deposited they are apt to live in darkness and dampness. Our best disinfectant is sunlight and fresh air. The prevalence of tuberculosis in the tenement-house district is a source of danger to the community, but that selfish argument is weak. The matter should be considered from a humane and an economic standpoint. The physician can promise success if he has support. Why then should this unnecessary suffering continue from a preventable and often curable disease? Largely because politics of a corrupt or cheap character fetter or limit the action of health authorities. Given a free hand a competent health officer could diminish the death rate from tuberculosis at least twenty-five per cent in five years.

The long-continued disease often attacks the bread earner, and causes destitution which is not met, and admittedly can not be met. The majority of consumptives die between the ages of eighteen and thirty-five, at the time of life when one is best qualified to be a producer. The loss to the state due to tuberculosis in New York city can not be accurately given. If 6,000 deaths occur annually, one may estimate the worth of the individual to the state, or the loss of his earning capacity, then add necessary expenses for illness met by the individual and the municipality, the cost of aid to the dependents, and the loss by infection and degeneracy of offspring. This preventable loss is a matter of millions, and any exper-

diture would pay if this disgraceful condition could be removed. It has been paid in Europe. No country there is as neglectful and ignorantly blind.

If there must be overcrowding and the other vicious attributes of tenement-house life then at least know the consequences. Every form of suffering has been fought and many mastered. The physician is now appealing for the consumptive, and ignorance can no longer remain an excuse. He will toll the iteration, "Consumption can be prevented. Consumption can be cured; and the awful yearly harvest of death is unnecessary. Why is not more done?" The horrid, unnatural huddling together of the poor who are unfortunate enough to live in a colossal beehive of a city where the blunder of congestion and stagnation annually increases, can have but one tendency,—mental, moral, and physical dry-rot, as shown principally to-day by the great prevalence of tuberculosis and rickets. The poor, afflicted through no crime or fault of their own, must have better care and protection.

If sentiment and feeling, thought and reason, are required to secure necessary reforms in the tenement houses, make the ravages of tuberculosis one of the principal themes. Everywhere the crusade against the great, white scourge grows in strength and purpose—the people are becoming aroused to the fearful loss of life and treasure, and some day the procession of doomed, neglected mortals, moving steadily and hopelessly on to the grave, will cease. The sobs and the cries of mourning, and the mutterings of despair and desolation will be hushed. The same kind of men who met yellow fever and cholera, unafraid and quietly, with no martial music, plaudit, or hope of fame, will win once more. There is an old Ger-

man saying that "every law has a holiday." The apathetic, conservative, Dickens' type of an honorable board or committee will not help. The leader and the recruit must give timid policy a vacation. There has been too much of commercialism mixed with the tenement-house problem, and possibly too much consideration for the twenty-five-foot lot. The true remedy is to check now, and surely and slowly remedy present conditions. A determined attempt will surely give rise to new methods of relief. One of these will be cheap, improved rapid transit.

Municipal control fails through the division of responsibility and the lack of enforcement. How new measures for relief shall be administered is open to controversy, but there are many arguments which can be presented in favor of state control, inspection, and enforcement. Any improvement will involve questions of good citizenship and health, and if corrupt city government fails the state may have a duty to perform which is distinctly within its

province. Prevention must be planned for the future. All our cities are growing rapidly, and it will be better now to check the growth of the tenement-house population in all cities than to strive for years to remedy conditions which are bound to appear in time.

The tendency to-day is towards centralization of power and increased control of municipal matters by the state. The political pendulum swings to and fro as government becomes weak or strong. Some lasting benefit is found in the outcome. Perhaps in time the deserving poor will learn the power of organization in politics and fight for a safe, healthful home, where decent surroundings will make manhood and womanhood possible, and the life of a child pure, wholesome, and sweet. If they can not succeed without a leader, he will appear, to tell the story of "the ebbing sea of weary life," and teach that every man should have the right and a chance to do his best. We can not have good government without good people, and we can not have good people without good homes.

SMALL GARDENS FOR TENEMENT DWELLERS IN COPENHAGEN.

BY MORRIS LOEB.

While visiting Copenhagen, in the summer of 1898, I happened to drive through some barren open ground, which lies between two newly-built suburbs of tenement houses. My attention was attracted by the curious appearance of a large tract, enclosed by a high board fence, over which peered the roofs of a multitude of small cabins or pavilions, while a profusion of pennants and banners gave a

peculiarly festive effect hardly in keeping with the rather bare surroundings. By dint of questioning the coachman it was found that this was a Kolonihavn, or workingman's garden colony. After some parley with the gate-keeper we were permitted to enter. What we saw and were able to gather, in spite of the difficulty of the foreign tongue, seemed worthy of further inquiry, and, through the courtesy of the

American vice-consul, additional information of a documentary nature was procured.

Even in Denmark itself, and in the adjacent parts of Germany, this venture appears to have attracted little attention, and it is practically unknown in this country. The following sketch is based partly upon observation, but chiefly upon matter contained in volume i (1897) of *Vort Havebrug* (Gardening), the monthly organ of the Kjöbenhavnske Haveselskab (Copenhagen gardens society). Mr. P. Hansen, the editor of this journal and the manager of the enterprise, seems to have been the writer of the unsigned articles in which the history of the gardens is set forth.

Travelers in central Europe, especially in Germany, are not unfamiliar with the sight of detached private pleasure gardens, sometimes clustered together. Such gardens were frequently planted in former times by the wealthier citizens, who dwelt for the sake of safety within the walled towns, where no space was available for a garden patch. Within the last seven years, if not up to the present day, a curious example could be found in Leipzig, where a rapidly-growing factory quarter has completely surrounded the Johannisthal, a tract of at least fifty acres, parceled out into small private orchards and pleasure gardens belonging to well-to-do families not always dwelling in the immediate vicinity. The semi-private or joint-stock garden squares of London, as well as Gramercy park in New York city, represent a similar principle.

On the other hand, quite in accordance with the general system of peasant agriculture, the truck gardens in the neighborhood of the larger European towns are frequently tilled by tenement dwellers, who go quite a distance to and from their plots rather than live upon them; especially since many seek employment as laborers in the winter months. Perhaps the "Pingree potato patch" plan might be classified as an attempt to transplant these conditions, as an emergency measure.

But the Copenhagen Kolonihavn, to translate which correctly one should use the expression "tenement gardens," are something quite distinct. They aim to provide the wage-earner with a garden plot under the same general conditions under which the better-class tenement-house affords him a home: land which he may consider his own as long as he can afford to pay a moderate rental for it and continues to use it for appropriate purposes. The landlord provides the approaches, water, and drainage, the watchman, and certain other common necessities. To render them attractive, the rental must be so low that, by working in his own leisure hours or with the assistance of the unemployed members of his family, the tenant can raise enough produce to more than compensate him for his expenses, even if he prefers to devote a part of his land to purposes of enjoyment and recreation. There must be a shelter of some kind on each plot, not only for storage, but also to serve as a summer house. Finally, the gardens

must be so near the tenants' dwellings that they and their families can resort thither without expense or fatigue. All of these conditions are admirably met in Copenhagen, and might without doubt be met in many of our larger cities, if not within New York itself.

While there were earlier attempts of a similar nature, this particular plan seems to have been inaugurated in 1891 by a workingmen's club, whose managing board leased some waste land from the city and sublet small parcels to members of the association, retaining the center for a common park, casino, etc. There was an immediate demand for plots, and the plan was in the main successful. The park portion, however, led to trouble. It was in control of the club management, its maintenance was expensive, and this was met in part by selling restaurant privileges, exclusive trading rights, etc. Then the club appears to have been drawn into politics, and the park was used for meetings, political picnics, etc., all of which seemed contrary to the original plan and to the views of some of the tenants. Mr. Hansen and others withdrew to form a stock company whose sole purpose should be the management of similar individual gardens. While this is certainly the better principle, the fact remains that two political organizations of workingmen now maintain such gardens in Copenhagen in spite of the more rapid growth of the new *Haveselskab*. The actual reports of the latter, for 1893-6, are alone before me.

This society held four tracts of ground, in 1897, situated in four distinct workingmen's quarters, two being purchased outright, one rented from the city, and the other from the state, at regular current rates. In fact the company seems to have received no aid from either public or private sources, but has obtained funds by the sale of stock and by mortgage. With a capital of 20,000 Kroner (cir. \$5,600) it owned 50,000 Kroner's worth of property, subject to a mortgage of 17,750 Kroner and a floating debt of 9,000 Kroner. In 1896 there was a surplus of 1,500 Kroner, but no dividends had been declared. It must be remembered that the ninety-odd stockholders were tenants as well, presumably at reduced or nominal rental.

The actual cash income from the land was 10,000 Kroner, against an expense account of 8,500 Kroner. This might almost be called a paying basis, especially since the debt was incurred solely for the necessary first improvements, and the actual real estate might be considered unencumbered. In the year in question plots were rented out in the four tracts of this particular society to a total of 765 persons, as follows: One hundred and sixty day laborers, 247 journeymen-artisans, 73 master-artisans, 103 shop-keepers, 14 small manufacturers, 136 clerks, and 32 single women.

There were in all available 1,150 plots, whereof 850 measured 200 square ells (about 800 square feet) each, the remaining 300 being of twice that size. The yearly rental varied

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according to the desirability of the plots from one and a quarter to ten öre per square ell. That is to say, the best of the standard plots of 800 square feet would cost \$5.60 annual rental, including water-rates and all other dues. The tenant could build his own pavilion or pay a rental of about \$6 per annum for one already erected. These pavilions are more or less tastefully built of wood, and vary from open "umbrellas" to two-room houses with a porch. Sometimes one finds a tent.

Of course the rental figures mean nothing without reference to the standard of living. Elsewhere in the periodical from which our statistics are drawn, the monthly earnings of a married man of the class to which the tenants belong are estimated at \$28, of which, according to another reference, it may be judged that one-third goes for lodging. As the garden land is situated in close proximity to the tenement districts, its value can not differ largely from that upon which the rather unsightly dwellings are built, and one might estimate that about five families would live over the ground space of one garden plot, were tenements to displace a Kolonihavn.

It is apparent that for one reason or another the Copenhagen society was not in 1896 charging an adequate rental for its ground. Assuming that about 1,000 plots would be rented in the following year, which was likely enough, as only one tract had been completed in the course of 1896, the annual charge for plots should have been doubled, to say

the very least, in order that improvements on leased ground might be written off by the expiration of the lease, etc., to say nothing of dividends for stockholders. Apparently, too, rivalry with the earlier political enterprise led to the selection of one unremunerative locality.

However that may be, a glance at the numbers of tenants shows the popularity of the scheme. When we visited the tract on the Enghavej, each garden appeared to be surrounded by a neat fence; the walks were trim and clean; the plots were generally devoted to both kitchen and flowering plants, and there were a few young fruit trees. In the pavilions at this time of day, about 4 P. M., there were mostly old folks, and children playing or studying. We were told that it was customary for the families to take their supper there, and sit or work through the long northern twilight. In affording a safe playground to the children, in promoting healthy outdoor life, in knitting family ties, promoting harmless sociability, and counteracting the attractions of the saloon, the Kolonihavn should be a real boon to the tenants, even were there no fair chance of a pecuniary return.

The leases are renewable each year on October 1. The rent is payable semi-annually in advance. The conditions of the contract contain no unusual clauses, except those restricting the land to gardening purposes and making the lease void if the tenant fails to till his land or remove nuisances within ten days

after receiving a written request. A deposit is required for each pass card and key, and tenants can obtain them for any members of their respective families. There is nowhere a distinct statement whether improvements, such as pavilions, etc., belong to the tenants or go with the ground, but it is evidently expected that all leases shall be renewed continuously. The planting of fruit trees, etc., by some of the tenants proves that this is the intention on their part.

Such a plan could hardly be tried with success by private parties in congested districts such as the borough of Manhattan in New York city, but in Brooklyn or in other American cities it might have much to commend it. At the tenement-house exhibition in New York, last spring, plans were shown wherein the desirable amount of air space might be obtained by inducing the city to set out wide parkways between rows of tenement houses owned by private individuals. Such a use of public money for the benefit of private holdings, from however laudable a motive, might seem a questionable innovation to many. Suppose, however, that the same

enterprise which built the tenements were to hold the intervening land and to rent it out for small gardens at a rate sufficient to cover annual interest and taxes. Invaluable light and air would be secured for all the neighborhood, while the sense of proprietorship in the garden plot might for many a tenant convert his abiding place into a home.

The small parks provided by the city, at the present time, seem to me to lack this element of neighborhood proprietorship; while formal architecture and gardening undoubtedly provide an education to the eye, the necessary restrictions upon the visitors do, in a sense, detract from their enjoyment. It would, therefore, seem that even the city could afford to devote a portion of the money now spent upon costly fences and marble steps to the experiment of converting one of the numerous small parks into a neighborhood garden, in which, in one form or another, the dwellers in the nearby tenements could actively participate in the tilling of the ground, or in which their children could be taught the rudiments of horticulture.

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THE FIRST NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE.

The New York conference of charities and correction, held at Albany, November 20-22, exhibited an unusual degree of interest and enthusiasm. For this reason and because it was the first session of the conference, we devote somewhat more space to its proceedings than can ordinarily be given to state conferences. The opening meeting on Tuesday evening filled the senate chamber of the capitol for the addresses, and the ball room and the corridors of the hotel headquarters for the subsequent reception by the local committee. Exemplary provisional arrangements had been made. The only possible ground for criticism lay in the over-full program, which closely limited the opportunity for general discussion. The session was opened by President W. R. Stewart, of the state board of charities, who had acted as chairman of the provisional committee of fifty. Governor Roosevelt, Mr. John M. Glenn, president of the national conference for the current year, and Hon. W. P. Letchworth, president of the conference, were among the speakers at the opening session.

Care of Needy Families.

No discussion could have been more animated and vital than that provided by the committee on the care of needy families in their own homes,

of which Mr. Frederic Almy was chairman. The report of the committee described the advances of the century in charity, emphasizing the progress of the past generation in all kinds of preventative and educational work. The chief pride and joy of modern charity is its work for children, whose character is "wax to receive, and marble to retain." One hour or one dollar spent on a child is equal to ten spent on a man, and if we could reform one whole generation of children, we should have reformed the world. As in the case of libraries, savings agencies, housing reform, nursing, and other advances, all that we most prize dates from the last quarter-century. The present century will not be more known as the age of machinery than as the age of charity. Neither the crusades nor the reformation surpass in extent and value the present social movement; it is inspiring to see that great leaders like Peter the Hermit and Martin Luther have not been necessary. The work of to-day is more the unnoticed, patient work of many everyday, average people.

Mr. James B. Reynolds made an address on the need and value of settlement work, starting with the important distinction that settlements have as their natural clientele not the dependent, but the independent poor. Their special function lies in three directions: first, in social investigation; second, the provision of opportunity; and third, social improvement; or what may be called co-operation with and for the com-

munity in which the settlement is located. The settlements have a close relation to philanthropic and charitable societies on the side of preventive work, wherein such societies have fully recognized their responsibilities.

Mr. J. G. Phelps Stokes, in continuing the discussion, dwelt upon defective or undeveloped personality as a cause of poverty. This defective personality is partly due to selfishness and greed on the part of those who oppose improvements in the housing and social conditions of the poor.

Miss M. Love, of Buffalo, in response to questions, presented a statement of the Buffalo church district plan. It was shown that the settlements which co-operate in this plan are to some extent ministering to the material wants of the poor, although a debit and credit account is usually kept with the families thus aided, and an opportunity given to them to repay such aid, in some kind of work if necessary. One of the chief objects of the plan was to educate the churches and church members. Many of the settlements included in the plan have only one resident, and several have no residents at all.

Rev. S. H. Bishop raised an interesting point as to whether the unit of settlement should not be the family rather than the somewhat exceptionally strong individuals who are usually to be found in the typical settlement.

In response to an inquiry from Rev. A. P. Doyle, Mr. Reynolds defined the settlement as follows:

A colony of educated men and women located in the poor quarter of a city for the purposes of social effort. The scope and character of

the work of a settlement is determined by the needs of the community in which it is located. There may therefore be infinite varieties of work performed in accordance with the infinite variations of needs and opportunities.

In opening the discussion of Mr. Edward T. Devine's paper, which is printed in this number of the REVIEW, Mr. Edmond J. Butler stated that to the family belong absolutely the right and duty of developing the physical, mental, and moral nature of its children. Only when the family fails in this duty is any outsider justified in stepping in to assume it. The family has no right to surrender or shift its duties. When through incompetence or death the parents can not perform these duties, the state may stand *in loco parentis*, but it should seek an opportunity to place the responsibility upon those who by their natural relation to the family are able to assume it. The state is not itself competent to furnish that complete development which the nature of the child demands.

While there was general concurrence with the definite principles laid down in Mr. Devine's paper, exception by several was taken to the proposition that children should be removed absolutely when parents are pronounced unfit guardians. Rev. T. A. Hendrick called attention to the decision of the court of appeals in a familiar Rochester case as bearing upon this question. It was rejoined that, while foster parents should not, of course, be given any greater or more absolute rights than natural parents, nevertheless, in the cases in which parents are declared to be unfit guardians because of moral depravity, etc., there should be

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no hesitation to make that disposition of the child which is for its own best interest. To sacrifice many years of the child's life for the mere sake of keeping it where it can conveniently be restored to its parents in the exceptional case of their reformation is inhuman and unjustified.

**Institutional
Care
of Adults.**

One of the most instructive of the reports presented at the conference was that on the institutional care of adults, by Mr. Byron M. Child, superintendent of state and alien poor. The report exhibited the growth of public and private charities in the state, and specially since the organization of the state board, making it possible to gather statistics on the subject. There has been an increase of annual expenditure for all purposes from about \$6,000,000, in 1870, to nearly \$30,000,000, in 1899. The earlier tables are incomplete and unsatisfactory, but enough may be gleaned from them to show progress in all aspects of the institutions having to deal with the poor. Besides the almshouses and other public charities, there are now about one hundred and ten institutions under private control which receive destitute adults. The population of the institutions included within the scope of the report at the beginning of the present year was as follows: In homes for aged and friendless persons there were 7,392; in almshouses, exclusive of those classified below, 11,251; blind, in almshouses, 341; deaf, in almshouses, 94; epileptics, in almshouses, 316; idiotic and feeble-minded, in almshouses, 1,153; disabled soldiers and sailors, 1,611; hospital patients, 8,223; reformatory inmates (females), 1,868. Adult dependents have now better care, are better

housed, and receive better treatment than at any previous time in our history. The apparent need of the future is not for additional legislation, but for character, intelligence, and permanence in the administrative staffs of our institutions. There should be no place in any charitable institution for the able-bodied vagrant. The law for the relief of the poor unable to work should be strictly construed so that those who are of vicious character, and those who are able to work but are unwilling to do so, may be refused admission. Those who are excluded should be cared for, but in penal institutions.

Dr. J. T. Duryea, superintendent of the Kings county almshouse and the Kings county hospital, read a paper on classification. The chief argument for careful classification is that it tends to bring each individual within the observation of those who are responsible. The more thoroughly this is accomplished, the fewer dependents there will be, because many dependents can be made self-supporting if their condition receives individual thought and attention. There is need of reliable and uniform statistics for the guidance of those who care for dependents and all those who make or influence the making of laws on the subject. Reliable statistics are impossible unless one general classification is adopted. To be reliable, classification should be so defined that its application will be uniform. There should be separate classification of temporary and permanent dependents. Any mixing of the two classes in one institution prevents the cure by educational methods which is often possible among the temporary dependents, and is harmful. Only the aged and infirm belong in the almshouses, and,

if the latter contained only their proper beneficiaries, there would be ample room in them for the next twenty-five years.

Rev. N. O. Halsted, superintendent of St. Johnland, King's Park, reiterated the demand for classification, advocating the erection of state homes,—“homes worthy of the name,”—for the aged and infirm, where the necessities of life would be supplied under a kindly and economical administration. These homes could be of a better class than the almshouse, which should be reserved for voluntary paupers. This plan was advocated also by Mr. George Blair, superintendent of outdoor poor in New York, who caused a bill to be introduced in the legislature last winter for the erection of such a home.

Captain Daniel Delehanty, governor of the “sailors’ snug harbor,” gave a description of this institution, located at West New Brighton, S. I.

Children.

The report of the committee on the care of defective, dependent, delinquent, and neglected children was presented by Rev. Thomas L. Kinkead. Beginning with the reform brought about by the state board of charities and the state charities aid association in the removal of children from the almshouses, the report referred briefly to the existing institutional system. The merits of this plan were not discussed, for the reason that no particular issue is now before the public regarding it, and for the further reason that questions of broader scope and greater moment are at issue. When a system is not radically defective, every effort should be made to improve it. Whatever methods are in use should

be raised to their highest standards. It is, however, a fair question whether the physical standards maintained in the charitable institutions should be so high that they become desirable in the eyes of parents, and whether the children in them should have advantages over other children who are not public charges.

The committee declared that the paramount consideration in child-saving work is the preservation and purification of the home. In these days, when family ties are weakening and powerful influences are drawing people away from home life, every effort should be made to strengthen family ties. Parents should not be released from the duty of supporting their children unless it be really necessary. More stringent laws were advocated, or the better enforcement of those already existing, in reference to the abandonment of children by those whose duty it is to support them. The establishment of children's courts, particularly in large cities, was also recommended, that these children may, as much as possible, be removed from contact with crime. There will be less disagreement about method among all earnest people working for the welfare of children if the religious rights of the children and the natural rights of the parents and relatives are respected and secured. Another noteworthy fact in the history of child-saving is that nearly all the great improvements have been effected through private societies, associations, or institutions, or at their urgent request.

Mr. Homer Folks presented a paper in which he answered the two following questions: What brought about the New York system of car-

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ing for children? Do these reasons for the system still exist? Among the causes of the growth of the system were enumerated:

1. When children could no longer be retained in the almshouses, it involved a minimum of change to send them to the asylum, and pay a moderate amount per week for their support, since many of the asylums were already in existence. The reform moved along the lines of least resistance.

2. Public care of children had always been associated with almshouse care. Almshouse care had come to be a synonym for neglect, contamination, and abuses of every description. The reaction naturally led to the abandonment of public agencies for the care of children.

3. Residents of New York have always feared and distrusted government. They have been keenly aware of the evils of paternalism, and have always had before them the results of the spoils system. It is extremely doubtful whether in any other city in the United States, the Ramapo water contract would have been even proposed. And lately it has remained for New York to develop that anomaly known as a "subordinate governmental agency." In that particular aspect and capacity it has no existence elsewhere, though similar charitable societies do similar work in all large cities and states in the union.

4. The greater number and greater divergence of racial and religious interests here favor a system of child saving which includes the development of institutions strengthened from the resources of the public treasury, but working under the name and control of organizations representing the particular elements

of the population, racial, social, or religious.

Mr. Folks, in conclusion, said: We may add to these another cause making for the retention of the New York system, and that is the system itself. We have it with us, and in large measure. Vast sums have been invested, large organizations built up, large numbers of people employed, and large vested interests created, all of which are strong and silent influences for continuing the present system.

Most of the causes which led to the adoption of the New York system still exist, but I have not included among them the one cause which alone would be adequate reason for its continuance, namely, that it has been conspicuously successful.

If the New York system had proven itself adapted to secure the highest welfare or the greatest proportion of the children who properly became public charges; if it had not increased unduly the number of dependents, nor undermined the self-respect of parents, nor weakened family ties, nor strengthened and perpetuated differences of race and creed, which in all public matters are best overlooked and forgotten, then its claim to unanimous support would be unquestioned. That the New York system has failed in some of these particulars, notably in increasing the number of dependents and in weakening family ties, we should all of us admit. As to some of the points we might differ; as to others, particularly as to its freedom from the evils attending almshouse care, we should all agree that it has been successful. If we aim to strike the balance as best we may, admitting that it is a judgment based on incomplete data, and therefore sub-

ject to revision, it would be in substance this,—that the New York system is, as it were, still on trial; that having demonstrated some inherent tendencies to undue growth, to too much asylum and too little family care, and to undermining home life, it has, during the past five years or more, shown many gratifying evidences that it can be successfully readjusted and modified, so as to preserve its fundamental principle and its beneficial features and to counteract its unfortunate tendencies. The spirit is more than the form; the animating purpose more than the method of organization.

To attain a so much to-be-desired result calls upon us all for toleration, sympathy, fairness, a desire to know one another, to understand one another, to appreciate each the point of view of the other; it calls for frequent conferences such as this, in which we appear, not as champions or vindicators of particular methods, but as seekers after truth.

Professor Franklin H. Briggs, superintendent of the state industrial school at Rochester, insisted that conditions in New York are radically different from those of other cities, and that there are many changes in the existing system, to which the paper presented by Mr. Folks had not done justice, and imperative reasons for its continuance. Miss Windeyer referred to the system in New South Wales, where children are boarded out or placed in homes or in suitable instances boarded with their own parents. Rev. Jacob Goldstein, of the New York sheltering guardian society, who had been favorably disposed to the boarding-out plan while a resident of New South Wales, had become convinced

that it is impossible to board out Jewish children in New York.

Dr. Lee K. Frankel, manager of the united Hebrew charities, New York, said that he was firmly of the opinion that one of the causes of the New York system was nothing less than our own declaration of independence, which, he maintained, had brought innumerable people to this country by the sole and impelling motive of a desire to enjoy life and liberty. The spirit of public opinion has not allowed us to break up families by permanently separating their children from the parents.

Dr. William O. Stillman, president of the Mohawk and Hudson river humane society, Albany, presented an exhaustive consideration of the causes leading to the commitment and surrender of children as a charge upon the public by parents or others. This paper was based upon correspondence with many experts and administrative officers, although it had been found that but few of these correspondents had accurate statistics upon which to base conclusions. Among the causes of juvenile degeneracy, Dr. Stillman included sensational journalism. This discussion was continued by Hon. John W. Keller, president of the department of public charities, New York, who began with the statement of the convictions that there is no place for a child like home; that the best institution in the world is not so good as a good home; on the other hand, that a good institution is better than a bad home:

We have heard much about the putting-out system, and the boarding system, and the other systems. Now, first and foremost, in finding a home for a child, we must regard the religious principles of the home

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of that child. The best protestant home would not be a good home for a Jew child, and the best Jewish home would not be a good home for a catholic child. When we consider these things, and find how scarce in this country good Jewish homes are and good catholic homes are in proportion to the demand for homes for children we get the answer to the question why so many children are in institutions in the city and state of New York.

There are some abuses. They have always obtained. They still obtain under the present system of admitting to these institutions, and there is no question whatever that the fact that men and women can put their children in these institutions has spread about through the community, and there has been bred a germ of paternalism which leads a great mass of people, the moment anything interferes with their welfare, to seek to relieve themselves of added responsibilities by applying for the admission of their children to the institutions. This is a thing which should be stopped. How? I think the answer is to be found in part in the establishment in the city of New York of a court for the commitment of children. Now we commit through the city magistrate, by surrender, and through the department of public charities. We commit for destitution, for improper guardianship, and for incorrigible conduct. There should be some regular and responsible means of commitment. There should be an investigation of every application for an admission to an institution, and there should be a record, as Dr. Stillman said, not only of the commitments, but of all the antecedent data possible to be obtained prior to the commitment.

As commissioner of public charities I am every day confronted with propositions from people to put their children into institutions, who seem to have only this thought—that the institution is a convenience to the general public. The only way is to have a thorough investigation. Don't make the institution worse; keep it just as good as it can be, for if a child is to be admitted into an institution, it should be entitled to all the comfort and all the attention and all the education it can get out of the institution. It is bad enough to be in an institution without being deprived of any of the advantages that any institution has to-day.

The retention of children in institutions can be remedied by the action of the authorities. The investigation should not end with the admission of the child. It should be kept up throughout the stay of the child in the institution, so that whenever opportunity offered to take the child out of the institution it should be done.

Mr. Keller named as one of the great causes of poverty and crime the condition of the tenement houses of New York city, and made a plea for more sunlight and air in their construction. To this end he favored revised building laws.

Dr. W. P. Spratling presented the report of the committee on the mentally defective. He advocated a lessening of the public burden now resting upon the state in the care of its dependents:

1. By prevention; *i. e.*, by legal measures to prevent the marriage of the mentally defective, and the propagation of the unfit. 2. By more economical construction of public buildings. 3. By spending as much, and only as much, as is neces-

The Mentally
Defective.

sary on maintenance—in some cases more per capita, and in others less, than at present. A better classification would enable the state to spend more, for example, on the acutely insane, and less on the chronic insane. Four or five thousand of the chronic insane could be colonized in such a way as to reduce the per capita cost of their maintenance nearly one-half. There should then be built in New York city, and in other cities, a special hospital, with a name which would not suggest that it is a lunatic asylum, in which every appliance which will increase the chances of recovery should be supplied, at whatever expense. These special hospitals should be centres of medical and pathological instruction. 4. By the education of patients. The word custodial is an unfortunate one for use in the asylum. Good teachers would accomplish a great deal in this reduction of the financial burden. The reduction may be directed to the self-support of patients after their discharge, and also to the partial self-support in the institution itself of those who should be retained.

The attorney general of the state, Hon. John C. Davies, was quoted as having expressed the opinion that the state has a perfect right to prevent by law the marriage and intermarriage of defectives and dependents.

Dr. John F. FitzGerald, of the Rome custodial asylum for idiots, traced the progress of legislation in New York in the development of its provisions for the mentally defective, advocating the transfer to special schools and asylums of some 1,200 idiotic and feeble-minded persons now confined in county and city institutions, and also of many of those who are now in their own homes,

where they are a burden upon wage earners. Those who are teachable should be placed in a school where they can be trained, and the idiots in a custodial asylum, where they can become at least in part self-supporting. At present the graduates of the institution at Syracuse who remain in need of institutional care can not be received at Rome or at Newark, because the latter institutions are overcrowded. Every moral imbecile and idiot should be provided a permanent home at the expense of the state. They are far happier in such an institution, far safer, and less dangerous to the community.

Hon. Charles McLouth entered a trenchant protest against the influence of politics and of selfish local influences in the management of state institutions. The remedy was found in the refusal to localize the membership of the boards of managers. This reform, instituted by the state board of charities, has of late found support in the executive.

Miss M. V. Clark said that if the state did about twice as much for its feeble-minded as it now does, it would do infinitely more than it does. Every year that the state postpones the removal of its feeble-minded from its children's asylums, almshouses, and other local institutions, it permits a progressive increase in their number. It is a sad indication of the existing situation that the women in the Newark custodial asylum for women, instead of having come direct from the Syracuse institution for feeble-minded, are usually already mothers of illegitimate children.

Miss Windeyer, in response to a question from a county superintendent, said that in New South Wales it

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was found that after a suitable training in cottage homes, it was possible to board out some feeble-minded and epileptic persons in carefully-selected foster-homes.

Mr. W. R. Stewart declared that it is true that the state institutions at Rome, Syracuse, Sonyea, and Newark are overcrowded, and that there are several hundred persons to be found in county and private homes who should be placed in them. They can be enlarged, however, only as the result of appropriations. The state board of charities annually recommends appropriations for this purpose which the legislature does not pass. The county superintendents and others interested throughout the state must press upon the legislature the urgent importance of these appropriations.

Dr. P. M. Wise, president of the lunacy commission, before reading his paper, called attention to the fact that the per capita cost of maintenance as shown in the annual reports is an average, and does not show the actual amount spent on any. There are hundreds—probably thousands—of patients in the state hospitals who are self-supporting, while there are others upon whose treatment \$25 a week, or more, is expended.

Dr. Wise described the advantages resulting from centralization of administration in the state hospitals for the insane. The chief gain has been in the enforced co-operation among hospitals, and the fact that good results achieved in any one hospital are actually extended to the other hospitals of the state. The danger anticipated before the present plan went into effect, that individual initiative would be checked, has been found to have

been imaginary. There is no motive to such discoveries greater than the probability that good results will at once be introduced throughout the state. Financially, also, the plan of state care has been justified. More important, however, is the advance of from twenty-five to thirty per cent in the standard of work done in the hospitals, affecting every phase of the treatment of patients. One example is the pioneer experimentation in the study of dietaries, under the direction of Professor Atwater. Dr. Wise's conclusion was that there should be similar co-operation and centralization of charitable agencies in various fields.

Treatment of the Criminal. Mr. Thomas Sturgis, chairman of the board of managers of the Elmira reformatory, who was chairman of the committee on the treatment of the criminal, presented a report which outlined a general plan for this and succeeding sessions of the conference so far as it deals with the treatment of the criminal, and which contained an analysis of the correctional institutions to be found in the state. Like many other speakers at the conference, Mr. Sturgis insisted upon the necessity of scientific classification, both among the specialized institutions, and within each institution. Inasmuch as the courts can, at best, classify only roughly and imperfectly at the time of commitment, it is essential that there should be free transfers from one institution to another, such transfers to be based on acquaintance with the criminal by the head of the institution to which he is first sent. This interchange should be upward as well as downward. At present there is only a steady decline by incorrigibles from reformatories to state prisons.

Hon. George McLaughlin, secretary of the state commission of prisons, discussed the present prison system of the state of New York and pointed out definite particulars in which it can be improved. Among the improvements suggested were the following:

1. In order to furnish the convicts with employment under the present constitution, further legislative restrictions should cease, and officers and institutions should comply with the law in good faith. 2. The state should furnish the prisons with new and modern buildings, especially at Sing Sing and Auburn. 3. The lock-step and prison stripes should be displaced among prisoners of the higher grades. 4. There should be compulsory education, in the common English branches, of prisoners whose education has been neglected. 5. An efficient parole law should be adopted applicable to state prisons. Even life prisoners should be placed under a system of parole. 6. The state should watch over discharged prisoners, aiding them in finding employment, and assisting them in the meantime, if necessary.

Mr. N. O. Fanning, deputy commissioner of correction in New York city, pronounced strongly in favor of centralization in the administration of state correctional institutions, but against the proposition for centralization in the hands of the state of the institutions now under the control of local authorities.

Mr. S. J. Barrows, secretary of the prison association, cited the experience of England, France, and Italy, in support of the principle of centralization in the hands of national authorities.

Mrs. C. R. Lowell described the origin and objects of the reformatories for women, of which there are two in New York state, started as the result of an investigation made in 1873 by Dr. C. S. Hoyt, late secretary of the state board of charities, into the causes of crime, pauperism, and insanity. Mrs. Lowell said little of the possibilities of state refuges for women and thought they are valuable only when they are but a last resort in a series of asylums, many of which would be of small size and private in support and control. Chief reliance must be placed upon the possibility of making lighter the ordinary burdens of the hardly pressed, self-supporting woman, of those who are weighed down by the hard grind of their daily work, and subjected to constant temptation. We must transform our conception of charity, so that it not only lifts up the fallen, but strengthens such as do stand.

The next meeting of the conference will be held in November of 1901, probably in New York city, with Mr. Robert W. de Forest as president, and Mr. Robert W. Heberd, secretary.

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THE BREAKING UP OF FAMILIES.

BY EDWARD T. DEVINE.

The breaking up of a family by any outside agency is justified only when it is merely the outward expression of a destruction which has already taken place. The separation of husband and wife, the removal of children, the involuntary displacement of an aged member of the family, are the more usual forms of separation which are included under the expression the breaking up of families. Any one of these may be dictated by mere caprice; circumstances may exist under which public opinion will approve any one of them; conditions may arise under which the strong arm of the law may give its sanction. The presumption, however, is against either compulsory or voluntary breaking up of the family, except by the natural and evolutionary withdrawal of children who have attained their growth, and who have come to rely upon their own exertions or to establish new families of their own.

The family is the ultimate unit of our social organization. Other social institutions are supplemental to it, and it is not an unfair test of their value whether they strengthen and support the family and the ends for which the family exists, or whether they tend to disintegrate the family and thwart its objects. Even the church does not relieve the family of its duty as a religious institution,

but only aids and supplements it. The school only takes up the work of education where the family leaves it, and upon the latter remains a responsibility parallel with that of the school and extending far beyond it. Hospitals and other agencies of medical relief are expedients for restoring as quickly as possible to their active and normal places in the family those who are disabled from performing their part. Homes for aged persons and for incurables are agencies for the care of that limited portion of the class to which their inmates belong, for whom, because of exceptional reasons, a normal family life has become impossible. Orphan asylums and other institutions for children are primarily to provide shelter and training for children who are deprived of their natural birthright in the opportunity for a growth and development in the family, and for the parental care which, to the child, is the chief element in family life. The social club, the boarding house, the tenement house, the employment of women in factories, the higher education of women, all of these and countless other social innovations and institutions are judged instinctively more by their influence upon the family than by any other single test, although each

will naturally involve other considerations of greater or less importance.

The application of the test is not always easy. For example, if it be asked whether homes for aged persons, supported by charitable contributions, have the effect of removing from the family those whose children or other near relatives should support them, it is necessary to ascertain how far the inmates of such homes really have such relatives and how far it would be possible for them to provide a home for the aged dependents in their own families; how far such support, if given, would deprive young children in the same families of the opportunities now afforded to them; and how far, if at all, there would be a reduction of the physical comforts now secured both by the aged persons and by the families who are by the present plan relieved of the burden of their support. Such facts as these lend themselves to statistical inquiry. There are other more subtle but equally vital facts which it will be necessary to ascertain. What is the effect upon young children of the example set by their parents, when the latter too easily throw off the burden of caring for their own aged parents or their near relatives? Is there a social disadvantage in the policy of sacrificing the most fruitful and active years in caring for those who no longer contribute to the family income and who are of no direct service? In other words, using the language of natural selection, will the community which,

merely from sentiment, cares for its aged dependents by uneconomical methods, compete successfully with the community which disregards such sentiment, and places those who are past active service in institutions where they can be supported on some uniform and therefore economical plan? Is there a conflict between the economic and moral standards, and, if so, which should prevail? If our homes for aged men and women are found to be as humane and more economical than the plan of caring for the aged members of our families at home, their numbers should doubtless be increased and multiplied. If we reach the conclusion that they should be utilized only for those who are absolutely without near relatives or friends able to care for them, it may still be necessary to increase their number, merely to provide adequately for all persons who are in this unfortunate position.

There is involved also the relation which they should bear to the public almshouse. The theory of almshouse administration has been that the conditions must be made less attractive than the home which the average hard-working member of the community can provide for himself in his old age. Otherwise there will be no inducement to make such provision, and the number of those who accept the public bounty will tend constantly to increase. In an ideal administration sufficient discrimination might be introduced so that those who become public dependents solely through misfortune can be

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surrounded with a somewhat greater degree of comfort than is provided for the shiftless, the intemperate, and the improvident. It would then become a question whether the almshouse thus conducted might not care for all who can not be kept at home by their own relatives, either with or without private assistance.

The actual situation in most communities is that there is little if any classification in the almshouse; although there is in the smaller almshouses an individualizing of inmates and a natural grouping according to personal affinities which is better than any classification could be.

Within the past twenty-five years the standard of comfort in the almshouses of the writer's state has steadily improved, while at the same time there is no tendency that can be discovered to increased abuse of the public bounty. In fact there are probably to-day fewer almshouse inmates who should be cared for by their relatives than there were a quarter of a century ago when the discomforts and privations of the almshouse were much greater. This fortunate result is brought about by a more general introduction of the practice of making some investigation when application for admission is made, and the exercise of wider discrimination, both in admissions and in discharges. The actual population of the almshouses has not only not kept pace with the increased population of the state, but has actually diminished. This is, of course, due in part to the removal from county almshouses of

many special classes of defectives, such as the insane, the epileptic, and the feeble-minded, who are now cared for in state institutions; but even after due allowance for this has been made it still remains clear that the increased decency and comfort of the almshouse have not led to increased pauperization, and that it is perfectly possible for the community to provide deterrent checks against such tendencies other than the old-fashioned and repellant plan of making the almshouse a place of actual physical discomfort and privation. It is probable that the prejudice against the almshouse, while it is useful in stimulating every effort to avoid public dependence, has the marked disadvantage of keeping in a state of actual want and suffering outside the almshouse some who would be distinctly better off within it. The duty of the charitable would seem to be to emphasize the fact that it is no disgrace to accept public care if it is necessary, the disgrace, where there is any, lying only in the course of action that leads to dependence, and not in the particular method by which that dependency is relieved.

There is not sufficient accommodation in the homes for aged persons to receive all who are entitled to better care than the almshouse affords, while there is not discovered any very general tendency among the families of the state to rid themselves of the care of aged persons by shunting such responsibility to the public or to private institutions. In other words, there is still a con-

siderable margin for the wise institutional care of aged persons before the danger point of demoralization is reached, and there are doubtless several hundred persons in the state for whom admission should be secured either to a well-managed private institution or to a reformed and improved almshouse, unless, indeed, the plan of providing funds to pay the board of these persons in private families is preferred. There is much to be said in favor of this alternative, but the discussion is beyond the scope of the present paper, since in either case the beneficiary would not remain a member of the family to which he naturally belongs.

A similar series of questions arises in regard to the social effects of medical institutions, but they are easily answered. Hospitals, whether public or private, homes for convalescents, and institutions for the treatment of special kinds of diseases, such as alcoholism, insanity, or consumption, do not as a rule have a tendency to break up families prematurely or improperly. When the patient is curable the brief stay in a hospital or other institution, by restoring health, permits a continuance of family relations. The exceptions in New York, as in other states, is in the state hospitals for the insane, where there are many slightly demented old people who could be cared for with perfect ease at home or even in the county institutions. In New York the high reputation of the state hospitals, from both a physical and a medical standpoint, is

somewhat responsible for this state of affairs. When the managers of the state hospitals refuse to retain such patients they incur the danger of raising a hue and cry against the present system as a whole, and probably some time must elapse before the system is so well established that the hospitals would feel safe in firmly refusing to receive or retain those who are not suitable objects of their care.

One of the most serious evils arising before those who consider this general subject is the desertion of the family by either of its nominal heads. This is apparently an evil of increasing magnitude and menace. The causes of desertion are numerous and as complicated as the causes of destitution and crime combined, for the act of desertion may spring from a criminal motive, or from personal weakness, or from a combination of various causes, and, as its result, there is frequently distress and frequently temptation, both to the one who deserts and to those who are abandoned. The provisions of the New York penal code and the code of criminal procedure, supplemented so far as New York city is concerned by sections of the greater New York charter, would seem to go as far as it is possible for a state law to go in the prosecution and punishment for abandonment, or even a threat of abandonment. The courts have been inclined to take the position that the "competent testimony" required by law must include the testimony of a deserted wife when her husband is the

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defendant. A broader interpretation, which would enable any individual who knows that the family has been deserted to take the initiative, would be more sensible and equally justified by the wording of the law. Difficulties arise, especially in the communities near the state border, when the defendant escapes into another state, and the question has been raised whether federal legislation might not make it a crime, to be prosecuted in the federal courts, for one to desert his family and leave them without proper support while he is himself sojourning in another state. If this would not be constitutional the offense might at least be made extraditable, if it is not already.

It is also a fair question whether one who has been convicted of this offense under the present laws should not be dealt with in a manner more adequate for the purpose in view. Confinement at hard labor, which does not yield any pecuniary result to the family which has been abandoned, hardly meets the need, but it is difficult to discover any better plan when the alternative of placing the defendant under bonds to support his family is impracticable. The unwillingness of most wives to appear in court and ask for suitable action is very general, and is perfectly intelligible. There is no real solution for the difficulty in legislation. The crying need is for sound education in the responsibilities resting upon the heads of families, and for the exercise of personal influence in persuading individuals to

bear their natural and proper, even if heavy, burdens. Along with this there must be a persistent and aggressive attempt to remove all causes of destitution which are social in their nature and to remove the possibility of any honest plea in defense that one is compelled by misfortune and by the lack of needed assistance to leave his family to the uncertain mercies of strangers.

By still another method is the integrity of the family endangered. The removal of children for destitution, for ungovernable conduct, and for improper guardianship, is a state policy which has had an extraordinary development in New York within the past generation. It is true that there have always been children who, because of the death of their parents, because of their destitution, or their unfitness for parental responsibility, have required some substitute for the natural protection of their own family, and it has long been recognized that children were entitled to some protection at the hands of the state against neglect, even from their own parents. In some American communities the state itself undertakes to provide, either in public institutions or in foster homes selected by itself, for those who become public charges. In the city of New York such children are, for the most part, cared for in private institutions, chiefly under the control of religious bodies, but maintained under what is practically a contract with the city at public expense. In other parts of the state the same

system is in force, although the county authorities also place children in many instances in foster homes, either directly or through societies which exist for that purpose.

From the maze of complications and difficulties in which the whole question of dependent children is involved a few principles emerge:

1. Children should remain with their parents if the latter are of good character and have sufficient income for their support. Simple and obvious as this proposition appears, it has been frequently violated in the past, and in the city of New York its violation has been so widespread and continued as to create in the minds of thousands of residents in the city, and even in the minds of future residents who are still beyond the seas, the idea that by coming to New York and putting themselves into relations with the proper persons it will be possible for them to rid themselves of the expense and burden of looking after their children. The rules of the state board of charities, under which children are now received and retained in public institutions, and the action of the department of public charities under those rules, has checked this tendency to some extent, but has by no means eradicated it.

2. Parents who are of good character and who, with a reasonable amount of private assistance, can support their children at home should, as a rule, receive such assistance, and the breaking up of the family should thus be averted.

The experience of the charity organization society of the city of New York demonstrates beyond possible controversy the fact that there are many such families and that assistance for them can be provided. It is, of course, true that discrimination must be exercised in deciding whether any given family should thus be aided. The chief test is the welfare of the children. When the parents are of good character and are physically, mentally, and morally capable of caring for them properly with a stipulated amount of assistance, but from lack of earning capacity can not do so without such assistance, the advantages of remaining at home should be secured. Where there is public outdoor relief the overseers will naturally extend relief in cases of this kind if application is made for it, but where, as in New York city, and as it should be everywhere, there is no outdoor relief, the full burden should and can be borne by private charity.

3. If children are removed because their parents are morally unfit guardians for them, this removal should be absolute and final. There should be no hesitation in transferring the legal guardianship in such cases; there should be no opportunity for continued intercourse between parent and child, and no obstacle should be placed in the way of such disposition of the child as is best for its own welfare. Without entering into the relative merits of institutional care and the system of placing out children in families, it is clear

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that whichever is best for the child should in cases of improper guardianship be adopted with the least possible delay. Temporary institutional care should continue only until a suitable home can be found, or while the child is under observation for its own sake. Increased precautions are doubtless necessary not to remove children upon this charge, unless the facts warrant it, as the danger of injustice both to parent and child is always present; but if, after careful review of the circumstances, a court decides that the parents are unfit to care for their child because of moral depravity, or that the child is living under degrading conditions, the child should be so disposed of as to prevent absolutely a return to those conditions, and the law should also prevent an effective claim to the services of the child as soon as he is old enough to have a money value to the parent who has been declared to be an unfit guardian.

4. If children are removed because of their own incorrigible conduct, the expense of their maintenance in a disciplinary institution should be borne by their parents, and the period of their detention should be as short as is consistent with the objects in view when commitment is made. This involves the principle of an indeterminate sentence, since the temporary guardians will doubtless be the best judges as to when the conduct of the child is sufficiently improved to warrant his return to his parents. Neither incorrigible conduct nor improper guardianship,

however, should be used as a mere cloak to enable parents to shift the burden of caring for their children upon the city; nor should a child committed as ungovernable be retained merely because the parents are believed to be unfit guardians. If, when the question of discharging the children arises, the unfitness of parents to care for their children is called into question, this should be definitely passed upon by a court, and if they are, because of viciousness or immorality, unfit persons to care for their children, appropriate action should be taken upon this basis.

5. Orphans who have no near relatives, abandoned children, when the whereabouts of the parents are unknown, and others who for any exceptional reason may be treated without regard to their parents or other relatives, do not raise any question as to the breaking up of a family, and, as in the case of children whose parents are pronounced unfit guardians, they may be cared for by whatever method is believed to be best for themselves.

6. The children of destitute parents for whom no adequate private assistance is forthcoming, in a community which has no public outdoor relief, must necessarily be cared for either in institutions where they may be placed by their parents, or by a system of boarding in private families, without legal adoption or other transfer of legal guardianship from the parents. The latter have done nothing to sacrifice their claim upon the children, and yet the children

can not be permitted to suffer. Theoretically this is the class of children for whose sake chiefly the great institutional system of New York city has grown up. The managers of those institutions having in mind this class of children, indignantly and with some justification deny that their institutions have a tendency to break up families. In their eyes the institution is like a hospital, in that it provides temporary care for one who will shortly be restored to the family, but for whom proper provision can not at the moment be made. The children of the well-to-do are sent to the boarding school, so the children of the poor are sent to the only place where corresponding opportunities are provided by the city for the poor.

I agree with those who maintain that there is a definite place for the institution in the care of some of the children of this class, as well as in the care of children who are ungovernable, and for the temporary care of children whose parents are unfit guardians, and who should eventually be placed in foster homes, so far as good homes can be provided. I believe that private charity should reduce the number of children committed solely for destitution as far as possible, and that only the remainder, who for exceptional reasons can not be aided at home, should become public charges. The commitment of children for destitution does sometimes lead to the breaking up of the family, and it should be avoided whenever the deficiency in family income can be made good

without injury to parents or children. There are instances in which the temporary care of children in institutions during a period of illness or other misfortune really has the effect in the long run of keeping the family intact, and a full recognition of this public service should be made. The danger, however, that the separation will be extended beyond the period for which it is justified and the disadvantages of even a brief separation of children from their parents and their reception into a large institution where their individuality is lost sight of should also be recognized.

The breaking up of families by the removal of children for insufficient reasons, the accompanying loss of a sense of responsibility on the part of parents, failure on the part of parents to make even reasonable efforts to care for offspring, the desertion of families in order to secure the commitment of children, the refusal of near relatives other than parents to play their part in the carrying of burdens of this kind, and the easy-going complaisance of public officials in accepting as public charges those for whom other provision should be made,—these are serious evils, constituting a public menace of increasing rather than diminishing intensity. Fortunately there are many forces upon which we may rely to avert it. We may count as allies in the struggle an increased sense of responsibility on the part of many public officials, an increased interest in the welfare of children, and clearer appreciation of the social value of the family.

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PREVENTIVE WORK.¹

AMERICAN PHILANTHROPY OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.)

BY JOSEPH LEE.

Philanthropic Loans.

As the savings bank dams up the stream to save the water for future emergencies, so the philanthropic loan enables the borrower to anticipate future earnings to meet an emergency, or to take advantage of an opportunity which already exists.

By the will of Benjamin Franklin £1,000 was left (1791) in the hands of trustees to let out at interest at five per cent to young married artificers, under the age of twenty-five, who have faithfully served an apprenticeship in Boston so as to obtain a certificate of good moral character from at least two respectable citizens who are willing to become their sureties in a bond for the repayment of the money; loans not

to exceed £60 to any one person nor to be less than £15, to be repaid in annual instalments of ten per cent.²

There are to-day many private associations for loaning money on or without security. Prominent among them is the provident loan society of New York, incorporated in 1895, which does a pawn-shop business at a charge of one per cent a month. The capital is \$136,000, and the company pays six per cent and earns a large surplus. The loans are usually soon repaid.³ Chicago started what I believe to be the first municipal pawn-shop in this country in November, 1899, loaning money at one per cent a month.

The loan of appliances which may

¹ Synopsis of paper :

i. Before 1860 :

Libraries.

Lowell, as a pioneer manufacturing town.

ii. Savings and loans :

Collection.

Stamp savings.

School savings.

Savings banks.

Building and loan associations.

Philanthropic loans.

iii. The home :

Building laws.

Rent collection.

Model tenements.

Model lodging houses.

Separate homes, in factory villages and otherwise.

The city or town as site of the home :

City sanitation and construction.

Village improvement.

Factory villages.

iv. The children :

For little children .

Vacation schools.

Summer playgrounds.

Outings.

For larger boys and girls

Baths.

Gymnasiums.

Playgrounds.

Boys' clubs.

Trade education.

For all the children :

School improvement.

v. Grown people :

Parks.

Social resources.

Educational provisions.

Modifying of industrial conditions.

² Directory published by associated charities of Boston, 1899, p. 138.

³ *Annals of American Academy*, May, 1897, p. 163.

be useful in case of sickness is common. A church I know of loans baby carriages—a great boon to tired mothers.

The most important form of philanthropic loan is that which aims directly at starting and keeping together the home. Of the work of savings banks and building companies in this direction I have spoken.

The first company in America that I know of to lend money on property remaining in the possession of the borrower was the workingmen's loan association of Boston. This was started by Mr. Robert Treat Paine, who began August 1, 1887, by an experiment with \$10,000 of his own. The company was incorporated March 8, 1888. It lends money on chattel mortgage (almost entirely on household furniture) at a rate of one per cent a month. It pays six per cent dividends, as well as taxes, and lays up a surplus sufficient to guarantee against danger from bad loans or bad times. The capital stock is \$125,000. The company borrows about \$38,000, and in June, 1900, had outstanding loans of about \$192,000, the average loan being about \$70.

There are small charges made for investigation of security and to furnish an insurance fund against fire; if the borrowers are already insured, the policy is assigned to the company. Monthly payments in addition to interest are encouraged,—are, indeed, practically required,—and small fines are made whenever there is failure to pay interest when due.

Partly as a result of these latter provisions the average length of a loan is one year and three months. During the year ending March 31, 1900, the company was the means through which people paid off debts to the amount of over \$147,000.

When the company began business the average rate of interest charged upon chattel mortgage loans in Boston was about five per cent per month, the rate varying from about three per cent to about ten per cent per month, besides charges for investigation, etc., which made the rate very much higher upon small loans.

One of the important lessons of the experience of the company is that reinspection of property after the loan is made has been found unnecessary, owing to the monthly diminution of the loan by payment on the principal and the resulting close touch with borrowers.

Mutual and benefit loan organizations are more important than the philanthropic organizations, but they are more a matter of business and I shall have to omit them.

III—THE HOME.

Besides helping people to buy a home by providing savings institutions, philanthropy also attacks the question of the home directly, by trying to modify the sort of habitations among which people have to choose. There are several ways of doing this.

The most general way, a way which affects every individual in the community, is that of building and health laws. It is through these

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laws alone that the lowest class of tenants is reached or that any large class of people are reached at all in American cities.

A method by which a large class of people is reached in London is Miss Octavia Hill's plan of rent collecting, which is applicable to a very low class of people as well as to higher classes. Coming to a somewhat higher level we find the model tenement house and, for the unmarried, the model lodging house. Then, at the top, comes aid in establishing the separate suburban home.

Public recognition of the value of the home, and protection of it, which would not generally be classed as philanthropic, is seen in our home-stead and land-grant legislation and in the laws exempting the home and the tools of the trade from execution in cases of bankruptcy. In Massachusetts there is legislation conferring rights, beyond those secured in the contract, upon the buyer of furniture on the instalment plan.¹

Tenement and lodging-house laws are a branch of our general health legislation and cannot be understood without some knowledge of the larger subject. I must therefore begin with a brief account of the latter.

Health Laws.

The selectmen of Salem, in 1678, "ordered that William Stacey, who is sick with the smallpox, doth not pre-

sume to come abroad till three weeks after this date; and that he be very careful that when the time be expired he shift his clothes and do not frequent company until he be wholly clear of his infection.

A house is ordered to be impressed for our sick having the smallpox."²

Legislation against smallpox began in 1701, and laws to regulate offensive trades were passed in 1692 and 1708 by the Massachusetts Bay colony.

"Up to the close of the eighteenth century, and for several decades of the nineteenth, almost the only health legislation which was enacted in the different states of the union consisted in a few laws relating to smallpox, since this pestilence was scarcely ever absent for many years at a time from any city, town, or village, till after the general introduction of vaccination. And it was reserved for the epidemic of 1848 to thoroughly arouse the people to the importance of initiating public sanitary measures."³ Vaccination first appeared during the first decade of the century.⁴

The report of the Massachusetts sanitary commission of 1850 marks an epoch in the history of preventive legislation. Subsequent advance in protection of the public health has been chiefly a gradual and, as yet, imperfect adoption of the measures recommended by that commission.

The most important part of our

¹ Public statutes, c. 192, s. 13.

² Felt's "Annals of Salem," vol. 11, p. 423, cited in report of Massachusetts sanitary commission, p. 48. See another case there cited.

³ Samuel W. Abbot, "Public hygiene in the United States," prepared for Paris exposition, pp. 9-10.

⁴ Abbot, p. 27.

health legislation to-day consists of the laws creating our state and local boards of health and defining their powers. New York city's board of health was formed in 1796¹; Philadelphia's in 1794, although it was not called by that name until 1799. The boards of health of Boston and Salem were created in the last named year. "At present nearly every city and large town of 10,000 inhabitants or more in the United States has its board of health or health department organized for the purpose of providing for the protection of the public health of the citizens. For the small towns, villages, and rural districts, which comprise at present the greater part of the population of the United States, the laws are much more variable."²

We now have state boards of health in almost all the states. The first was started in Louisiana in 1855. The Massachusetts board was not created until 1869, and California followed in 1870³. There is no national board of health, the place of such a board being partly filled by a number of volunteer organizations. The chief function of state boards is the education of the public, the legislature, and the local boards.

The leading characteristic of the laws defining the powers and duties of our local boards of health is in

the very wide and comprehensive nature of their legislative and discretionary powers. They are in substance given the legal power to make and enforce such rules and regulations as they deem fit in all matters affecting the public health.⁴ In practice this power amounts to the power to do whatever public opinion sanctions.

It is characteristic of the eastern cities—in Massachusetts, New York, and Philadelphia—that their general health and building laws are enacted by the state; in the west and south they are city ordinances, or are enacted by the health and building departments themselves⁵.

A determining factor in the great and accelerating advance which the last ten years have seen in preventive medicine is to be found in the increased enlightenment of public opinion, an enlightenment largely due to the discoveries of bacteriology. A board of health which ten years ago should have forbidden spitting in street cars and other public places would have been laughed out of existence. To-day such rules are made and enforced with heavy penalties.

It is the general if not the universal method, to give the board very full summary powers to abate nuisances and remove sources of danger to the public health in cases

¹ For a very interesting history of the development of the New York city health laws see report of counsel for the metropolitan board of health, in their report of 1867.

² Abbot, p. 46.

³ Abbot, pp. 11 and 13.

⁴ New York city charter, 1176.

⁵ See for instance, ordinances of city of Charleston, January 1, 1897, ss. 239-242; Ohio, revised statutes, ss. 2122, 2116, and 2128, applying to "any city, village, or township;" Denver, charter, ss. 51, 57, 440, 446; Pittsburg, act of assembly, No. 258, approved June 26, 1895, s. 2; Chicago (legislative power in city council), ordinance of April 18, 1881, ss. 684, 691, 692, and act of assembly, February 16, 1865, ss. 1, 8. Here, as in several other cities, there is a single health commissioner. Buffalo health ordinances are prepared by the commissioner, approved by city council; charter, ss. 233, 237.

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where notice given to the owner does not promptly accomplish the desired result.¹

Besides their very wide general powers, it is also the case that many of the laws which it is the duty of the local boards to enforce give them powers and duties which are extremely specific and minute. The specific powers and duties most commonly assigned to city boards are protection against infectious disease; the abatement of local nuisances; inspection of and enforcement of laws in relation to supply of food, including milk; inspection of schools; inspection of plumbing and of certain trades; and the enforcement of the laws, if there are any, specifically governing the sanitary condition of tenement houses.²

**Board of
Health
Procedure.**

The weak point of most sanitary codes is that they are not enforced. The most important laws, therefore, are those regulating the practical working of the board in enforcement of the other laws and regulations. I will take the New York law on these points as the best example.

The first thing to provide for in a sanitary code is that the board whose duty it is to suppress nuisances and dangers shall have the means of knowing when such things exist. The New York code provides for reports to the board from the police

in regard to nuisances or dangers to the public health, or violation of the rules of the board, "and all useful sanitary information;"³ and provides for reports from doctors⁴ and people in charge of lodging and tenement houses⁵ in regard to pestilential, contagious, or infectious diseases, and for reports from hospitals, prisons, and schools.⁶ The board itself must use all reasonable means to find out and disseminate information on its subject⁷, and has the right, for that purpose, to "without fee or hindrance enter, examine, and survey all grounds, erections, vehicles, structures, apartments, buildings, and every part thereof, and places in the city, including vessels and all cellars, sewers, passages, and excavations of every sort, and inspect and make plans, drawings, and descriptions."⁸ It must inspect every tenement and lodging house twice a year, and may enter any such house at any time, day or night,⁹ and may visit all sick persons reported as having contagious, pestilential, or infectious disease.¹⁰

A very practical provision in New York is that the board of health shall have from fifty to seventy sanitary inspectors and at least fifty policemen under its orders.¹¹ Its decisions are final,¹² and hearings may be dispensed with, in case of imminent danger from pestilence.¹³

¹ See for instance, Massachusetts public statutes, chapter 8, s. 3. (See manual prepared by Massachusetts state board of health, cases cited on pp. 14-5.) Ohio, revised statutes, s. 2128; Denver, charter, ss. 54-6; Pittsburg, act of assembly, No. 258, June 26, 1895, s. 6, and No. 113 of 1895, ss. 2 and 6 and 11; Buffalo, charter, ss. 236-7; New York, charter, 1178.

² Abbot, p. 47. New York charter, ss. 1171, 1170, 1203, 1207, 1210, 1212, 1215, 1221, and 1227.

³ Charter, 1202.

⁴ Charter, 1247.

⁵ Charter, 1250 and 1314.

⁶ Charter, 1169.

⁷ Charter, 1169.

⁸ Charter, 1188.

⁹ Charter, 1314.

¹⁰ Charter, 1184.

¹¹ Charter, ss. 1185, 1324.

¹² Charter, s. 1176.

¹³ Charter, s. 1176.

If people do not obey the board's directions within the time specified in its order—usually five days but sometimes as short as twenty-four hours—the board can carry them out itself;¹ and the police must enforce its rules and orders.²

Perhaps the most important duties of the board are educational. Besides its reports, which ought, at least, to be of great value, it has a corps of summer physicians who go around giving medical advice and treatment and distributing literature.³

An interesting provision of the sanitary code enacted by the New York board itself, marking the advance in the popular acceptance of the conclusions reached by preventive medicine, is contained in section 153, in which consumption is declared infectious and communicable, and where it is made the duty of every physician to report to the board within one week in regard to every such case, and the duty of every person having the disease or in attendance upon any one having it to observe the rules and regulations of the board. Boston, in 1900, has followed this example. Cincinnati had this provision in 1897.⁴

In the specific matter of tenement and lodging houses the principal powers of the New York board of

health, apart from the matters of procedure above mentioned, are as follows: The board can order a tenement-house vacated without appeal. Seventy-five such orders were "issued between the latter part of May and the middle of July, 1893;"⁵ it can under certain circumstances order such building removed with an appeal to the courts.⁶ In general, it is the duty of the board to see that the tenement-house law, which we shall presently consider, is enforced in regard to existing tenement houses.⁷

"To give an idea of the work of the New York health department with reference to tenement houses, it may be stated that in 1896, 109,134 inspections were made, resulting in⁸ 38,858 complaints upon which orders were issued. Three hundred and twenty-two houses unfit for human habitation were ordered vacated. In 264 cases the houses were placed in proper sanitary condition, and in 58 cases they were vacated. During the year 45,601 night inspections were made, resulting in the issuing of 213 orders to reduce the number of occupants in overcrowded apartments."⁸

I have said that our tenement-house law is a development of our general health legislation. It has also another ancestor, in our general

¹ Charter, ss. 1176, 1197.

² Charter, s. 1202.

³ United States department of labor, special report, 1895, p. 85.

⁴ See ss. 65, 65a of manual of Cincinnati board of health.

⁵ Eighth special report commissioner of labor, 1895, p. 24.

⁶ 1867, c. 908, s. 1; charter, 1315.

⁷ Charter, 1315, 1316.

⁸ So in original,—meaning "from" (?).

⁹ G. A. Weber, in *Municipal Affairs*, December, 1897, p. 749. For more detailed account of the procedure under the New York building law, see the special report of United States commissioner of labor, pp. 24, 27, and 117 ff., and the printed regulations of the building department and of the board of health.

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building laws, and it shows the traits of this ancestor, especially in the provisions for security against fire and for safe egress. I have, for instance, found in every tenement-house law which I have examined a provision for a scuttle in the roof that would unlock from the inside. But the building law, except as it refers especially to tenement houses, does not come under the head of philanthropy, and we can make no study of it.

Preliminary
Agitation
In New York.

We come now to the branch of our health legislation that deals specifically with the human habitation. I must confine myself to the story as it has developed itself in New York. To tell this story adequately would require an epic gift, and I feel as though I ought to begin with an invocation to the muse. It has been a long fight between philanthropy and public spirit on the one hand and ignorant immigration and corrupt politics on the other, and has been so far almost a draw, although the apparent advantage is at present more with the immigrant and the boss than with the philanthropist and the physician.¹

In 1847 the association for improving the condition of the poor published the result of a two years' investigation of the condition of the homes of the working classes. No

legislation resulted at the time. The society, however, continued its agitation, publishing an extensive report on the subject in 1853.²

In 1856, the legislature appointed a committee which was given two weeks to examine into the subject of tenement-house conditions in New York city, but which took all summer and framed an excellent bill providing, among other things, for licensing tenement houses, a step which has never as yet been taken in this country. No legislation resulted.³

In 1864, a citizens' association was organized, which appointed a council of hygiene and public health, "composed of the best medical minds in the city." This council completed the same year an exhaustive study of the condition of tenement houses and of the general sanitary conditions of the city, the results of which investigation were published early the next year in a monumental report. As a result of this report and of a subsequent visitation of the cholera, the world's great sanitary teacher and life saver, the metropolitan board of health for New York and Brooklyn was created.⁴

The governor appointed an excellent board, which showed its appreciation of the task before it by selecting as its chief executive

¹ The chief authority on this subject is Mr. Lawrence Veiller, secretary of the tenement-house committee of the charity organization society. For text of laws and full discussion see his reports as secretary of the present tenement-house commission, appointed in February, 1900.

It is difficult to condense a statute without making incorrect or ambiguous statements; it ought indeed to be impossible to do so. The following statement, therefore, necessarily contains both inaccuracies and ambiguities. For accurate knowledge, see statutes referred to.

² *Vale Review*, November, 1896, p. 290.

³ Same, p. 293.

⁴ Laws of New York, 1866, c. 74.

officer Dr. Edward B. Dalton, then thirty-two years old, who, at the age of thirty, had been at the head of the medical service of the army of the Potomac during the entire Wilderness campaign of 1864, and who was, by reason of his character and experience, probably the best fitted man in the United States for the position.

I wish I could quote at length from Dr. Dalton's first report,¹ (November 1, 1866) in order to give some idea of the condition from which New York tenement houses have advanced. We read, for instance, that "the arrangement of water closets and privies could hardly be worse if actually intended to produce disease," and then follow details as to the dreadful condition of these places. The report of the next year, 1867, shows how rapidly the board had gone to work, effecting, among other things, a great diminution in the number of cellar dwellings. Some of these were so low that at high tide the water in them was from six inches to a foot deep, so that the children had to stay in bed until the tide fell.

The drains were frequently backed up by the tide into the cellar, and were ventilated without partiality into all the apartments in the house. Among the tangible results of this

first year's work was the reduction in the total number of deaths in New York and Brooklyn from 35,000 to 32,000, it being estimated that, for one item, a thousand lives were saved by the heading off of the cholera. The decrease in deaths from zymotic diseases in the fourth, sixth, fourteenth, and fifteenth wards from 635 for the year before to 426 gives a good test of the work accomplished.²

The greatest result of all, due undoubtedly as much to the report of the board as to any other thing, was the passing of New York's first tenement-house law, chapter 908 of 1867.

The most followed but least intelligent provision of this law prescribed that a certain space, varying according to the height of the building, should be left between front and rear buildings on the same lot.³ The trouble with this provision is that while it prescribes how wide a space shall be left, when there is any space at all, it does not prevent the absolute joining together of front and rear buildings into one, and buildings so joined constitute the present prevailing type of tenement house.

There must be a space of ten feet wide across the rear of the building.⁴ This has been an effec-

¹ Report of metropolitan board of health, 1866, pp. 18-27, and appendix A, pp. 5 and 6.

² Report, 1867, pp. 8 and 9.

³ S. 12. Until amended by c. 504, s. 1 of 1879 (see New York charter, 1318), this section had also the remarkable defect of applying only in case the rear building was built first; a case which must have rarely occurred. Practically followed, although with slight modification, in Baltimore, ordinance No. 146, s. 76 (embodied in the code of 1893); Chicago, *American Architect*, May 20, 1893, p. 115; Cleveland, building law, s. 44; Cincinnati, No. 218, s. 54; Kansas City, ordinance No. 9258, approved January 15, 1898. Followed also in Boston, but now repealed. Laws referred to as "building laws" or "health laws" are contained in the manuals of these departments.

⁴ S. 13; charter, 1318.

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tive provision.¹ In the section containing these two provisions appears the famous discretionary clause to be discussed later.

There were several specific provisions in regard to height of rooms², size and number of windows³ and what they shall open on.⁴ To make these latter thoroughly understood would require a long statement and discussion. It is sufficient here to note that of 18,582 tenement houses inspected by the board in 1867, 9,846 were found in a bad sanitary condition,⁵ that bad ventilation was the usual trouble, and that the usual remedy was to cut transoms from one room to another and between interior rooms and the entry, the law in regard to this being, as a rule, enforced.⁶ When reinspection was made it was found that 39,270 transom windows in bedrooms had

been cut in pursuance of the orders of the board. Most houses at that time appear to have been only four rooms deep,⁷ and thus comparatively easy to ventilate. The tenants usually kept the transoms shut, but were, in 1870, becoming educated on the subject.⁸ In 1873 the board (just reorganized after the Tweed regime) reported the transoms as usually stopped up with rags or kept closed.

No cellars could be occupied without a permit and conformity to certain conditions.⁹ (The board can make such regulations as it thinks fit in regard to cellars and yards.¹⁰)

There were further specific provisions as to privies and water-closets,¹¹ connection with the sewer,¹² draining of yards,¹³ proper receptacles for ashes¹⁴ and garbage,¹⁵ chimneys and fire-places¹⁶, water-supply,¹⁷

¹ As amended by 1879, c. 504, s. 1. Chapter 339 of 1880, s. 1, omits the exemption of corner lots from this requirement.

² S. 14; charter, 1319.

³ S. 14; charter, 1319.

⁴ 1867, c. 908, s. 2; charter, 1320; s. 14, charter, 1319.

⁵ Report of 1869, appendix A, p. 24.

⁶ Same, p. 72.

⁷ See, for instance, plan of bad block, same, p. 512.

⁸ Report of 1870, p. 56.

⁹ Ss. 6-7; charter, 1309, 1310; compare 1895, c. 567, s. 4; followed in Boston, Mass. acts and resolves, 1885, c. 382, s. 17; Chicago, old city charter, s. 1935. Compare Baltimore ordinance, No. 79 of June 4, 1886, s. 4; Cleveland, building law, s. 42.

¹⁰ Charter, 1214.

¹¹ S. 5, improved by 1887, c. 84, s. 6; compare Boston, Mass. acts and resolves, 1885, c. 382, s. 1; Philadelphia (never less than one for each floor).

¹² S. 5; compare Boston, Mass. acts and resolves of 1890, c. 132, s. 1; Minneapolis, building law, ss. 108, 131; Providence, public laws of R. I., c. 777.

¹³ S. 9; compare, for instance, Baltimore, ordinance No. 79, June 4, 1886, s. 3; Chicago, old city charter, s. 1927.

¹⁴ S. 15; charter, 1320; compare Boston, Mass. acts and resolves, 1892, c. 419, s. 112; 1885, c. 302, s. 11; also revised city ordinance, 1898, c. 47, s. 17; Philadelphia, act of June 7, 1895, s. 7; Chicago, old city charter, s. 1935.

¹⁵ S. 8; charter, 1312; compare Boston, Mass. acts and resolves, 1885, c. 382, s. 12; Chicago, building ordinance, s. 1927; St. Louis, building law, s. 182; Cincinnati, health law, s. 31; Denver, city charter, ss. 468, 501, 508; Newark, see sanitary code enacted by board of health; Kansas City, building law, s. 215.

¹⁶ S. 15; charter, 1320; copied in Boston, Mass. acts and resolves, 1885, c. 382, s. 11; Chicago, *American Architect*, May 20, 1893, p. 115; old city charter, s. 1935; Providence, building ordinance, s. 28; St. Louis, building ordinance, s. 455; compare Cleveland, building law, s. 47.

¹⁷ S. 15; charter, 1320. See Chicago, *American Architect*, May 20, 1893, p. 115, old city charter, s. 1935; Kansas City, building law, s. 215; Philadelphia, act of June 7, 1895, s. 5,

cleaning and whitewashing,¹ fire-escapes,² and a definition of the tenement-house;³ also rules for procedure which have since been much improved upon.⁴

In 1870 the board of health, like everything else in New York, was reorganized under the new city charter dictated by Boss Tweed.⁵ Its area was confined to New York city, and its members were appointed by the mayor, Oakey Hall, Boss Tweed's tool, instead of by the governor. A clean sweep was made of the subordinate officers, but the sanitary superintendent was retained, and the report sounds as though the work were still, in the main, efficiently carried on.⁶

**Chapter 504
of 1879.**

Renewed agitation, by the state charities aid association and others, including a mass meeting in Cooper union February 28, 1879, brought about the passage of chapter 504 of that year.

In this law appeared the first of the provisions limiting the percentage of the lot which could be

covered by a new tenement house.⁷ Similar provisions are contained in the laws of 1891⁸ and 1895.⁹ They have all of them been practically of little effect,¹⁰ and a study of their wording and of the manner in which they have been evaded would almost lead one to the conclusion that they were each the result of a compromise between somebody who was bound that something should be done and somebody else who was still more firmly determined that that something should not be effective.

This law also provided that there should not be less than 600 cubic feet of air to each person in a room in a tenement house,¹¹ a provision which has since been modified to 400 feet for each adult and 200 for each child.¹² It also contains the first provision for police to act under the orders of the board,¹³ and for janitors when there are more than eight families.¹⁴

But the most important clause of this law of 1879, historically considered, was the one providing that every sleeping room in every tene-

¹ S. 9; charter, 1310, makes the whitewashing once every year, without requirement by the board. Substantially followed in Baltimore, ordinance 79 of June 4, 1886, s. 6; Buffalo, health ordinance, s. 126; Boston, Mass. acts and resolves, 1885, c. 382, s. 13, as amended by 1889, c. 450, s. 5; and revised city ordinance, 1898, c. 47, ss. 625-6; Chicago, old city charter, s. 1929.

² S. 3; charter, 1318; 1867, c. 939, s. 32.

³ S. 17 of 1887, c. 84, s. 13; charter, 1305.

⁴ Ss. 9 to 11, 16 and 18; charter, 1313 to 1315, 1322, 1323.

⁵ 1870, c. 137.

⁶ Report of 1870, pp. 56-65.

⁷ S. 1, sixty-five per cent; compare charter, s. 1318 and s. 661 of "consolidation act" of 1882.

⁸ Removed the discretion; c. 204, s. 1.

⁹ C. 567, s. 8; charter, 1318.

¹⁰ Riis, *Atlantic*, June, 1899, p. 769; Flagg in "Poor in great cities," p. 372.

¹¹ S. 3. Charter, 1321; compare Baltimore, ordinance No. 79 of June 4, 1886, s. 5; Buffalo, city charter, 238; Boston, statute, 1892, c. 419, s. 109; New Orleans, ordinance No. 6533, council series, s. 18.

¹² It made the number thirty. The law of 1887, c. 84, s. 1, made this number "not more than forty-five." The law of 1895, c. 567, s. 1, made it "at least fifty." Charter, 1324. Followed in Boston, Mass. acts and resolves, 1889, c. 450, s. 7.

¹³ S. 3; charter, 1321; copied in Buffalo health ordinance, s. 124. Practically copied in Boston, Mass. acts and resolves, 1890, c. 132, s. 1. Compare also Dr. Dalton's report of 1867 on importance of such provision.

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ment or lodging house thereafter "erected or converted" must have a window opening twelve feet square, either upon the public street "or the yard of the said house" unless sufficient light and ventilation be otherwise provided in a manner approved by the board of health.¹

The effect of this clause was to make a beginning in the development of the famous "dumb-bell" type of tenement house. The board's discretion was at first so used that in buildings twelve rooms deep, twenty-four rooms on a floor, only the four middle rooms opened upon the airshaft. Even the prize plans of the period show no better arrangement. From this beginning, however, the air-shaft has extended toward front and rear till it has reached all but the outside rooms. The conditions imposed for new buildings by the department of buildings² (to whom in 1892³ the board's powers had been transferred) required, at least as early as 1895, that "every habitable room must have at least one window opening directly upon the street or yard, or upon the court or light-shaft" and that these courts must be at least two feet wide, and of a minimum area proportioned to their height and to the number of interior rooms. Finally the law of 1895 provided that

in all new tenement houses "each room must have a separate window opening onto the outer air,"⁴ and that inner courts must be no less than two feet four inches wide at their narrowest part.⁵ At present the airshaft, in conformity to this law, reaches all the interior rooms, is two feet four inches wide, (about four feet eight inches or five feet, when it comes between two tenement houses), and the part of the shaft opposite the centre of the building is in practice about twice this width.⁶

It is interesting to note that this modification of the ground plan has been produced not by legislation directly designed to that end, but by legislation in regard to what sort of place the windows shall open upon.

As the production of the "dumb-bell" has been, with the exception of the ten-foot space across the rear of the lot, the one tangible result, so far as ground plan is concerned, of all the tenement-house agitation and legislation in New York, it is interesting to form some idea of what this result amounts to.

The
Dumb-Bell
Type.

There is much severe criticism launched at this type of tenement house. The commission of 1894 says, "It is the one hopeless form of

¹ S. 2. ² United States commissioner of labor, special report, 1895, p. 127.

³ C. 275, s. 2.

⁴ 1895, c. 567, s. 8; charter, 1318. See blanket discretionary clause, charter, 650.

⁵ 1895, c. 567.

⁶ The evolution from the air-shaft of 1879 down to the "dumb-bell" type is well traced by the plans shown in the above cited report of the commissioner of labor, 1895, opp. p. 128; in "the poor in great cities;" by Marcus T. Reynolds, American economic association, vol. viii, Nos. 2 and 3, p. 69; and in an article by Ernest Flagg in "the poor in great cities," p. 373. A glance at these plans will tell more than much description.

tenement construction. It can not be well ventilated; it can not be well lighted; it is not safe in case of fire." And I have heard its air-shaft spoken of as a "disease-breeder," "culture tube," and the like. On the other hand, a recognized sanitary authority says, "The small light shafts, which serve no useful purpose, have been abolished, and ample courts are now required which really light and ventilate the interior of such buildings."¹ And one who can not be accused of partiality toward the "dumb-bell" writes (what was clearly brought out by the tenement-house exhibit of the charity organization society of New York in 1900, that the death rate in these places "is not nearly so high as that of the old houses."² The objections are that the narrow light shafts serve as a medium of communication for disease, immorality, fire, and foul air. On the other hand I think it can hardly be successfully maintained that a plan by which each room receives a little direct light and air (and those at the top must receive a good deal) is really more "hopeless" than the old-fashioned tenement house twelve rooms deep in which the eight middle rooms in each row received no direct light and air whatever. The smells that go out can not all find their way in again; some must escape at the top.

Of course the courts should be wider (see *model tenements*, below)

and, as Mr. Reynolds has pointed out, would be much better for an opening to the street or yard at the bottom, inducing an up-draft; but, rhetoric apart, the fact remains that though the goal is yet far off, some ground has been gained.

The Period
1884-92

A commission authorized by the legislature was appointed in 1884 the results of whose recommendations are seen in the new tenement-house law of 1887,³ and also in the small parks act of that year

This law required that water must be supplied in all tenement houses (not merely new ones) and that it must be so supplied "at one or more places on each floor."

Mr. Riis,⁴ speaking of intemperance, says: "A single factor, the scandalous scarcity of water in the hot summer, when the thirst of the million tenants must be quenched, if not in that in something else, has in the past years, more than all other causes, encouraged drunkenness among the poor."

This law also made more specific and stringent the various enactments in regard to sewers and condition of floors and ceilings.⁵ But its chief contribution was to the procedure for enforcement.

The board must inspect tenement and lodging houses at least twice a year and after making orders.⁶

It required that every owner of a tenement or lodging house and every person having charge of one should

¹ Charles F. Wingate, *Municipal Affairs*, June, 1898, pp. 262 and 263.

² Riis, *Atlantic Monthly*, June, 1899, p. 18.

³ "How the other half lives," p. 172.

⁴ S. 8; charter, 1314.

⁵ C. 84.

⁶ Ss. 6 and 11; charter, 1308.

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(instead of merely posting up his name and address in the entry) file his name and address and a description of the property, giving a number of details in regard thereto, with the department of health, and must give notice in case of transfer of the property; and it enacted that "the posting of a copy of an order or notice in accordance with this section (that is to say, posting it up in the house) shall be sufficient service upon the owner of the property affected,"¹ thus removing the last defense of the absentee.

This law also gave power to the courts to use their equity jurisdiction in enforcement of orders of the board of health when action was brought by the board,² a very important provision.

In 1892 the powers of the board of health in regard to light, ventilation, plumbing, and drainage were transferred to the department of buildings,³ and in this same year the superintendent of the health department, "who had for twenty-two years ably and satisfactorily performed his duties in connection with this department, and had become an expert in the performance of these duties, was informed by the political organization that then governed the city that his place was

needed for political purposes, and he was required to send in his resignation upon an hour's notice." The counsel to the board, who had also been in its service a long time and had acquired special ability for the work, "was practically dismissed in the same manner and for the same reason."⁴

A law of 1891 (c. 204), limited the discretion of the board of health in regard to the percentage of the lot to be covered, and also in regard to the ten foot open space across the rear of the lot, to the case of lodging houses; but as nobody found out that this change had been made, the discretion continued to be exercised as before.⁵

The Gilder Commission.

In 1890 Mr. Jacob A. Riis created an epoch in the history of tenement-house and other anti-slum agitation by the publication of his book "How the other half lives." One of the results was the appointment of the "Gilder" commission in 1894.⁶ Among the more startling facts brought out was that of 255,033 persons living in a certain area, only 306 had access to bath rooms in the houses in which they lived, while there was, at that time, no such thing as a public bath in New York,⁷ the only publicly accessible

¹ S. 7, charter, 1313, 1176; c. 567 of 1895, s. 6, added the requirement of notice where property passes by will or inheritance. Compare Boston, Mass. acts and resolves, 1885, c. 382, ss. 19-20, and in Buffalo health ordinance, s. 123.

² S. 10, charter, 1318. See Boston, Mass. acts and resolves, 1885, c. 382, s. 21, and 1892, c. 419, s. 36, as amended by 1893, c. 170, s. 1.

³ 1892, c. 275 (approved April 9), s. 2; charter, 1322.

⁴ "Evolution and effort," Edmond Kelly, p. 150.

⁵ Lawrence Veiller.

⁶ For some of the interesting information brought together by this commission, see *Review of Reviews*, December, 1896, pp. 693-701. See also Riis, *Atlantic Monthly*, June, 1899, p. 761.

⁷ *Review of Reviews*, December, 1896, p. 695.

bathing facilities being the bath-house run by the association for improving the condition of the poor.

The most important provision of the act of 1895,¹ which followed the report of the "Gilder" commission, is that when any building is either itself a nuisance or prevents the ventilation of other buildings, or is otherwise unfit for habitation, and whenever it "prevents proper measures from being carried into effect for remedying any nuisance injurious to health," and when the matter can not be remedied by repairs, then the board of health may condemn the building and have it removed. Special provisions are made in regard to legal proceedings.

Damages are not to be estimated upon the rent actually obtained from a building, but only upon such rent as would have been obtained if it had been in good condition and had not been overcrowded; also the expense which would have been necessary to put it into decent condition must be deducted from the damages.²

The chief effect of this clause, and indeed the principal effect of the law of 1895, has been the destruction of a large number of the old rear tenements,³ largely owing to the work of the good-government clubs.⁴ (For a picturesque account of what was

done see Mr. Riis's article in the *Atlantic*, July, 1899.) These chose their point of attack from a list kept by the health department of sixty-six old houses in which the death rate had been for five years over forty-eight per thousand, and in some cases as high as sixty-three per thousand. The infant death rate in one ran up as high as thirty-two and one-half per cent.

During the year 1896 the board of health had eighty-seven rear tenements removed, but since 1897 this power has not been exercised, mainly owing to the return into power of Tammany in January, 1898. The Tammany officials were elected upon the platform of "To hell with reform," and the platform is being lived up to at least in this respect.

In this, as in many other cases, the question of good government is literally a question of life and death. The verdict of 1897 was a death sentence to thousands of children. This was not the greatest evil it did, but it is worth noting.

This law also provided for lights to be kept burning in the hallways,⁵ a section which is practically a dead-letter and can not be enforced.⁶

The "greater New York" charter of 1897 contains the tenement-house law substantially as it was left by the law of 1895;⁷ but it contains a clause giv-

Later Provisions.

¹ C. 567 of the laws of 1895, s. 7. Copied in Boston, Mass. acts and resolves, 1897, c. 219, s. 24.

² S. 7; charter, 1316. ³ Riis, *Atlantic*, July, 1899. ⁴ Same, p. 22. ⁵ S. 9; charter, 1320.

⁶ Riis, *Atlantic*, June, 1899, p. 764. For need of light see "Poor in great cities," p. 43.

⁷ C. 378 of 1897. See, however, pamphlet of tenement-house committee of charity organization society, 1899, p. 14, pointing out the omission of a clause in the 1895 law which diminished the danger from fire.

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ing complete discretionary power, in all cases whatsoever "where there are practical difficulties in the way of carrying out the strict letter of the law," to each commissioner with the approval of the board, said approval to be given by majority vote.¹

The municipal assembly of "greater New York," pursuant to the power given it by the charter to make ordinances supplementary to those contained in the charter,² adopted in December, 1899, a building code which contains a few changes in the tenement-house law, chiefly in regard to fire-proof construction of stairs,³ and of light and air shafts.⁴

An important regulation made by the building department and printed upon their blank form of application for permission to build a tenement or lodging house is that "alcove rooms must conform to all the requirements of ordinary rooms." The importance of this provision is that without it a part of a room may be curtained off and called an alcove, and in that case the fact that the other part of the room opens to the external air would satisfy the law, even although the "alcove" might have a separate door into the entry

and be occupied by a separate family, thus constituting practically an inner unlighted and almost unventilated room, a device which is at the present day much resorted to in Boston.

The clause leaving discretionary power to the department of buildings and the board of health, which forms so marked a feature of the New York tenement-house law, has been used by both of these departments as an opportunity for rewarding political service and of punishing political opposition. The association for improving the condition of poor, in its regular work in securing the enforcement of the tenement-house law, has found "that if the owner belongs to the machine which governs the city, no complaint, however well founded, receives adequate attention," and Mr. Riis among much similar testimony tells of how this clause was used with great, but fortunately not with conclusive, effect, to prevent the election of Theodore Roosevelt as governor.⁵ It is also used for the systematic levy of blackmail upon builders and others,⁶ and in other ways is made to furnish financial support to the boss and his machine. A certain fireproof material, for instance, was

Discretionary Clause.

¹ Charter, 650.

² Charter, ss. 41, 47, 50, not clear that the power is not reserved to the department of buildings and board of health, see s. 47. For high authority, with which the present writer finds himself unable to agree, maintaining the utterly subversive character of some of the sections of this code, see Mr. Veiller in the REVIEW, November, 1899, pp. 388-91.

³ S. 53.

⁴ S. 48 (part of general building law). This code can be obtained for a nominal sum from the Brooklyn *Eagle*.

⁵ See "Evolution and effort," pp. 148-9.

⁶ Same, p. 135. *Harper's Weekly*, Sept. 9, 1899, p. 882. "Politics is a potent factor in every city department, and many landlords with a 'pull' have been able to resist the board of health, and to allow their premises to run down, when their less influential neighbors have been forced to make repairs." Chas. F. Wingate, *Municipal Affairs*, June, 1898, p. 262.

excluded by the building department, until a son of the ruling boss obtained an interest in it, since which event plans specifying the use of that material have never been rejected.¹

Upon the other hand the change which has occurred in the prevailing plans for tenement houses since 1879 shows that the law is, as a rule, enforced at least in its more obvious requirements, and it is probable that the discretion given to the departments is used in a rational manner, where political considerations do not enter. Too rigid enforcement of these building laws when first passed might have produced reaction. Much also of the harm that it appears to have done would occur under a Tammany rule if such a clause had never been framed.

**Laws in
Other Cities.**

Most of our tenement-house laws are, as will have been seen in the notes to the New York law, copied from the original law of 1867. In some cities, however, there are special provisions in regard to surrounding air space which are a considerable improvement over the New York law—notably in Boston and Philadelphia.

In Boston the sixty-five per cent of the lot which may be covered is measured to the middle line of the street, thus giving a deserved advantage to a lot situated on a wide street over one bordering, as many Boston ten-

ement houses unfortunately do, only upon alley ways.

Again, the Boston law contains an ingenious provision which seems to me the best one yet invented upon the subject of surrounding air space, namely, that "every such building shall have on at least two exposures on land of the owner, or as part of public ways, open spaces of at least ten feet in width, which spaces shall have an aggregate length of one foot for every twenty-five feet of superficial area actually occupied by the building. Such spaces shall be open to the sky and shall remain undiminished so long as the building is occupied as a tenement or lodging house."²

The effect of this provision is that no building can cover the full width of the lot to a greater depth than fifty feet, unless it has an interior court at least ten feet square. Beyond that depth it can extend only in the form of an L, leaving an open space of ten feet in width upon one side. The practice of the building commissioner is not to allow the same piece of ground to count more than once under this section of the law. An interior court, for instance, ten feet square only counts as ten feet of exposure on an open space and not as forty feet.³

The difficulty with the New York law is that it was drawn upon the assumption that all lots were precisely like the typical New York lot. For struggles which have taken place

¹ *Harper's Weekly*, Sept. 9, 1899, p. 881.

² C. 419, of 1892, s. 108, as amended by c. 413 of 1897, s. 9.

³ Another peculiar provision of the Boston law, too long to quote, is in Massachusetts acts and resolves, 1892, c. 417, s. 108, as amended by 1897, c. 413, s. 9.

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to adapt these New York provisions to lots of various sizes, shapes, and conditions, see, for instance, the tenement-house regulations in Washington.¹

In Philadelphia the open spaces provided for must be at least eight feet wide; if they come between the wings of a tenement house they must be 12 feet wide; and, furthermore, every court or shaft for the purpose of furnishing light or air must "open upon one side into a street or into the yard or open space,"—in other words, it must be open at one end and not merely an interior well. Moreover, every room in every new tenement house must have at least two windows opening into a street or open space and "from every window to the wall or party line opposite to it shall be at least eight feet."

A notable provision is found in the Boston law² that every new tenement house must be of fire-proof construction. Since this law went into effect, no tenement

houses have been built, but some have been enlarged and many dwelling houses for three families have been erected. In Boston, also, windows on every floor of the hall may be omitted if the stairs are put under each other so as to leave an unobstructed light-well from the top.

In Philadelphia, whenever the chief of the bureau thinks that a tenement house can be built without a common entry connecting the several tenements or suites, he may require it to be so built.³

The St. Louis law is remarkable chiefly for the generality of its provisions. Everything must be "sufficient," "proper," and "adequate."

The fight, as to what shall be the worst conditions under which the citizen of the American city shall be permitted to live, has, as I have said, been so far a drawn battle, and it has now become more than ever a part of the general fight for good government. It will not be won until that is secured.

¹ S. 33 of their building law regulations with the various amendments thereto.

² Massachusetts acts and resolves, 1897, c. 413, s. 3 and 1898, c. 228; slightly modified by c. 321 of 1900. (Compare 1892, c. 419, s. 24.)

³ Act of June 7, 1895, s. 3.

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Municipal Trading. Index to report of committee. 10½d.
Pauperism. Comparative statement for the month of July in each year, 1857—1900. 2½d.
Prisons. England and Wales. 1899—1900. 2/8.
Railways Servants. Hours of Labor. 2½d.
- RUSSELL, C., LEWIS, H. *Jew In London: Study of Racial Character and Present-Day Conditions*. London: Unwin, 1900. Pp. 256. 6s.

Two essays prepared for Toynbee trustees. Introduction by S. A. Barnett, preface by James Bryce.

School Board for London. London: Through P. S. King & Son:
Annual Report of the Board for 1898—9. 8½d.
Evening Continuation Schools. Report for 1898—9. 17th session. 7½d.

SENHOUSE, R. M. M. *Workmen's Compensation Cases decided under Workmen's Compensation Act, principally from "Times" Law Reports*. London: W. Clowes, 1900. 8vo., 6s. Vol. 2.

Socialist Campaign Book of 1900. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co., 1900. Pp. 5+149, 8vo., 25c.

STURBS, CHARLES W. *The Social Teachings of the Lord's Prayer*. New York: Whittaker. Pp. 102, 75c.

THRASHER, MAX B. *Tuskegee, its Story and its Work*. Boston: Small, Maynard, & Co., 1900. Pp. 16+215, 12mo., \$1.
Includes a sketch of the life of Booker T. Washington. The introduction is by Mr. Washington.

TOLSTOI, LYOFF N. *Essays, Letters, Miscellanies*. New York: T. Y. Crowell Co., 1900. Pp. 605, 12mo, \$2.
Among the subjects discussed are: Arbitration, liquor drinking, non-resistance, disarmament, the suffering in the famine-stricken districts of Russia.

VEILLER, LAWRENCE. *Tenement-House Legislation in New York, 1852—1900*. New York: Tenement-House Commission, 105 East Twenty-second street, 1900. Pp. 197.
Classification of the different statutes with reference to the purpose of their enactment.
Housing Conditions and Tenement Laws in Leading American Cities. New York: Tenement-House Commission, 1900. Pp. 59.
For the exact student the most convenient and reliable source of information on this subject available.

WHITEING, RICHARD. *Paris of To-day*. New York: Century, 1900. Pp. 9+249, 4to, \$5. Illustrated by André Castaigne.

WHITMORE, C. A. *Municipal London*. London: P. S. King & Son, 1900. 1s.

WILLIAMS, TALCOTT. *The Ethical and Political Principle of Expansion*. Philadelphia: American Academy of Social and Political Science, 1900. Pp. 16, 8vo., 15c.

II—MAGAZINE ARTICLES

Unless otherwise specified, references are to the December numbers of periodicals

AMERICAN JOURNAL OF INSANITY. Baltimore. (October.)

The Duty of the State in the Care of the Insane. (Emil Kraepelin.)

ARENA. New York. (November.)

Have We an American Race Question?

I. *The Negro Vindicated.* (George A. Metune.)

Statistical and sociological study refuting the charge of excessive criminality brought against the negro.

II. *Passing of the Race Problem.* (Walter S. Hawley.)

The political problem will be solved by limiting the franchise to those who have demonstrated their right to vote, while a movement of surplus negroes west and south will solve the industrial question.

III. *Lawlessness vs. Lawlessness.* (W. S. Scarborough.)

A plea for equality before the law, and the substitution of law for lawlessness in dealing with negroes.

IV. *A Plea from the South.* (Walter Guild.)

The people of the south being most affected by this question, should have the right, within the constitution, to regulate it.

Direct Legislation in America. (Ellis P. Oberholtzer.)

ATLANTIC MONTHLY. Boston. (November.)

Ill-gotten Gifts to Colleges. (Vida D. Scudder.)

The dangers of accepting gifts of wealth won by methods which the moral sense of the community distrusts. The awakening demand for ethical scrutiny of the sources of wealth is discouraged, and the respect of the people is forfeited.

BULLETIN OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR. Washington. (September.)

Statistics of Cities.

Abstract of the main features of the official statistics of the cities of the United States having over 30,000 population.

Trend of Wages from 1891 to 1900.

Wages (according to statistics mainly of manufacturing) show in 1895 a decrease of 2.12%, in 1900 an advance of 3.43%, over those paid in 1891, following during the decade the fluctuations in general business conditions, but not so closely as is popularly supposed.

CATHOLIC WORLD. New York. (November.)

A Country Without Strikes. (John A. Ryan.)

CHARITY ORGANISATION REVIEW. London. (October.)

Girls in Poorlaw Schools.

Resumé of report to local government board. Suggestions for the necessary training to make good domestic servants of the girls,

and to let them take up work for which they show special aptitude.

Children's Workrooms in Sweden.

A movement to keep children off the streets by inducing them to employ their time after school in manual work, such as chip working, brush making, wood-work, shoe-making, weaving, and mending clothes. Meals are served to the children after the work is done.

CONTEMPORARY REVIEW. London. (November.)

The Street-trading Children of Liverpool. (Thomas Burke.)

The experience of the watch committee in licensing the children who trade on the streets. The experiment was unsuccessful as the work could not go to the root of the evil—drunken, shiftless parents.

ENGINEERING MAGAZINE. New York. (November.)

Piecework as an Agency in Machine Shops Cost Reduction. (M. Cokely.)

The logic and necessity of a wage system providing reward and penalty.

GUNTON'S MAGAZINE. New York. (November.)

Social Settlements in Chicago. (Francis B. Embree.)

Oriental Labor in the South. (May W. Mount.)

The problems engendered by the influx of Malay, Chinese, and Italian laborers.

KINDERGARTEN MAGAZINE. Chicago.

Kindergartens in the South. (P. P. Claxton.) (October.)

The need for kindergartens to stimulate the interest of parents in the education of their children, to promote socially and ethically the welfare of the people, especially on account of the industrial development, and the negroes.

A Plea for Kindergartens in the Southland. (Anna Murray.) (November.)

MACMILLAN'S MAGAZINE. London. (November.)

A Solution of the Domestic Problem. (A Grandmother.)

This reply to Mrs. Major's article in the August number, denies the existence of any "domestic problem," and makes friendly relations between mistress and maid dependent upon the former's kindly interest in the latter.

NEW ENGLAND MAGAZINE. Boston. (November.)

The Study of Housekeeping in Boston. (Mary E. Trueblood.)

The work of the Boston cooking school, and the opportunities in Boston for training in domestic science.

NEW WORLD. Boston. (June.)

The Teaching of Jesus Concerning the Rich. (Francis G. Peabody.)

A remarkably sane and scholarly paper.

NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW. New York. (November.)

Present Status and Prospects of the Peace Movement. (Bertha Von Suttner.)

Retrogression of the American Woman. (Flora McD. Thompson.)

OUTLOOK. New York. (November 3 and ff.)

Up from Slavery: An Autobiography. (Booker T. Washington.)

POPULAR SCIENCE MONTHLY. New York. (November.)

Municipal Government Now and a Hundred Years Ago. (Clinton R. Woodruff.)

QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF ECONOMICS. Boston. (November.)

The Trusts: Facts Established and Problems Unsolved. (Jeremiah W. Jenks.)

The greatest evils of trusts spring from acts that can be kept secret. Remedies are removal of special discriminating favors, removal of a protective tariff, legislation compelling publicity, and putting them under restrictions which can be enforced by public officials.

REVIEW OF REVIEWS. New York. (November.)

The American Negro at Paris. (W. E. B. Du Bois.)

The exhibit at the exposition of the work and progress of American negroes.

Trusts in England: Recent Developments of Industrial Combinations. (Robert Donald.)

ST. VINCENT DE PAUL QUARTERLY. New York. (November.)

The Catholic Charities of Chicago. (Bernard McHugh.)

Boys' Clubs: A Plea for the Boy. (Charles Dodd.)

Suggestions for the establishment and equipment of boys' clubs in connection with the catholic young men's national association.

The Condition and Needs of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul. (Thomas Dwight.)

SOUTHERN WORKMAN. Hampton. (November.)

The Modern Land of Goshen. (Kelly Miller.)

Social and industrial conditions conspire to emphasize and perpetuate the segregative tendency of the negroes, keeping them in the "black belt" and in wards by themselves in the cities. This separation will help them toward self-government by throwing them on their own resources without taking them too far from the controlling influence of the white people.

"Put Yourself in his Place." (Francis E. Leupp.)

A plea for applying the golden rule in the treatment of the Indians.

Discrimination. (Frank G. Woodworth.) The lack of discrimination, among white people, which places all negroes into one class, is one of the hindrances to the progress of the race.

Negro Criminality. (John H. Smyth.) Paper read at the Hampton conference, July, 1900.

The Training of Negro Teachers. (H. B. Frissell.)

The need for training colored teachers with a view to the special needs of the race. Special emphasis should be given to conquering race prejudice, the creation of the work habit, and a sense of responsibility.

In the Yazoo-Mississippi Delta. (Isaiah T. Montgomery.)

The founding and development of Mound Bayou City, a town of thrifty and prosperous colored people. The town was founded by the writer.

WORLD'S WORK. New York. (November.)

The Riches of a Rural State. (William R. Lighton.)

Agriculture and cattle raising in Nebraska, from the historical and sociological viewpoint.

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